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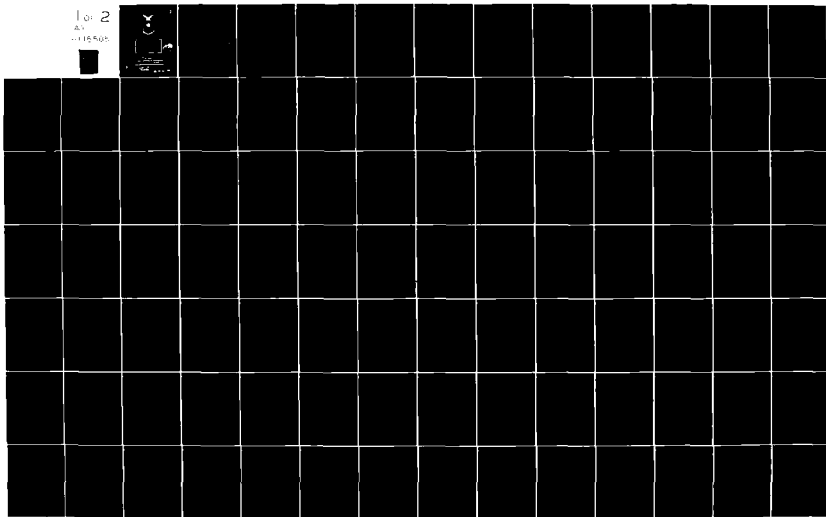
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**MULTI-CLASS ANALYTICAL MODELS OF THE
DECSYSTEM-10 JOB-SWAPPING BEHAVIOR**

THESIS

AFIT/GOR/MA/81D-4

Michael H. Cox
Captain USAF

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**MULTI-CLASS ANALYTICAL MODELS
OF THE DECSYSTEM-10 JOB-SWAPPING BEHAVIOR**

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering
of the Air Force Institute of Technology

Air University

In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science

by

Michael H. Cox
Capt USAF

Graduate Operations Research

December 1981

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Preface

This report is the result of an effort to further develop computer performance evaluation (CPE) tools for personnel at the Air Force Avionics Laboratory, Wright-Patterson AFB, OH. A previously developed FORTRAN program to solve multi-class closed queueing networks was modified to include an approximation algorithm to improve the accuracy of modeling job swapping.

Not only was this an academic learning experience, I feel I have gained some insight into the problems of getting support for a worthwhile project from the management structure. Sometimes this can be the most difficult obstacle in a research project. Also, I have learned a few things about myself in the process. I am hopeful that I will use this knowledge to take advantage of my strengths and improve on some of my weaknesses.

First, I would like to thank my thesis advisor, Ltc James Bexfield, for his support in this thesis effort. His encouragement and guidance were only exceeded by his patience.

Also of great moral support were my parents. Their many cards and letters and long-distance phone calls were always full of encouragement.

I would like to thank all of my classmates in both the GOR-81D and GCS-81D for their help through the year with the many problem sets, term projects, and labs. A special thanks goes to Ken Bauer for his artwork on the plots in this thesis. More importantly, his light-hearted humor and warm smile were always there to cheer me up. May you never lose your tremendous concern for others.

Finally, I would like to thank a small software company called Mark of the Unicorn for developing Scribble, the best text formatter for a CP/M home computer I've ever seen, and for their patient help when I needed it.

Michael H. Cox

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Abstract

→ An improved model of the DECsystem-10 job-swapping behavior was developed. This model combines a previously developed closed queueing network model with a job-swapping model developed by Chen (Ref 5). ↘ Chen's swapping model provides an approximate solution to a network queueing model with a state-dependent probability transition.

This combined model is then tested on a hypothetical, though realistic workload containing both interactive and batch jobs. The two classes of jobs are treated first as separate classes, as one class having the weighted average job characteristics of both classes, and as one class having just the interactive job characteristics. The results of these experiments and a comparison between Chen's swapping model and the classical are presented.

The results of the experiment indicate that it is important to model multiple classes for systems which have a significant amount of batch activity. ↗ Also, Chen's swapping model provides a more realistic model of job-swapping behavior for the DECsystem-10. Therefore, combining the

multi-class model with Chen's swapping model improves the modeling accuracy for the DECsystem-10. Recommendations for extensions to this multi-class Chen model are also discussed.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Computer Performance Evaluation (CPE)

1.1.1 Need for CPE

In recent years, science and engineering have become more concerned with the economic aspects in their fields due to increased costs of high technology and tighter fiscal budgets. Great attention has been given to the development and refinement of techniques which help predict behavior of systems and thus yield insights into what cost-performance tradeoffs can be made (Ref 23:1).

Any system which is in the process of being designed, procured, or modified must satisfy certain predetermined performance specifications. This is especially true in computer engineering where system specifications, reference manuals, and user guides abound. Designers and engineers use design and performance evaluation prediction techniques to obtain systems which meet these specifications.

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Prospective users of a system use these techniques to determine which combination of subsystems of components comes closest to matching their requirements, given certain cost constraints. Current users of a system use these same evaluation techniques and tools to help make decisions about existing systems concerning system upgrades and additions. Therefore, performance evaluation is needed at all stages of the life cycle of a computer product. (Refs 9:1,23:1-2).

Computer engineering is a fairly recent development and therefore performance evaluation is less developed than older branches of engineering, but definitely is not less important. The products of computer engineering (central processing units (CPU's), memory, printers, card readers, tape drives, disk drives, etc.) are primarily designed to perform certain functions related to the processing of information. How well these systems execute their tasks is a matter of tremendous technical, economic, and military importance to the Air Force (Ref 9:3)

1.1.2 CPE Techniques

Techniques for evaluating a computer system can be divided into two categories: measurement techniques and modeling techniques. Measurement techniques involve using

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performance monitors to detect and analyze system events. These monitors can be hardware oriented or software oriented, and their use with benchmark programs is called benchmarking. Modeling techniques, on the other hand, do not directly involve the system in question, but deal with a conceptual representation of the system (Refs 1, 9, 29).

These modeling techniques can be divided into four categories (Ref 1):

1. Rules of thumb, e.g. CPU utilization should not exceed 35 percent for on-line applications or 40 percent for batch applications.
2. Linear projection, e.g. "Computer useage doubled in the last year, so it will double again next year."
3. Analytical queueing models.
4. Simulation models.

Another CPE technique discussed by Svobodova (Ref 29:48-49) and more extensively by Sanabria (Ref 25) is empirical modeling. This technique combines the linear projection technique with benchmarking. Measurement data are collected from the real computer system and regression or some other curve-fitting technique is used to develop performance prediction curves.

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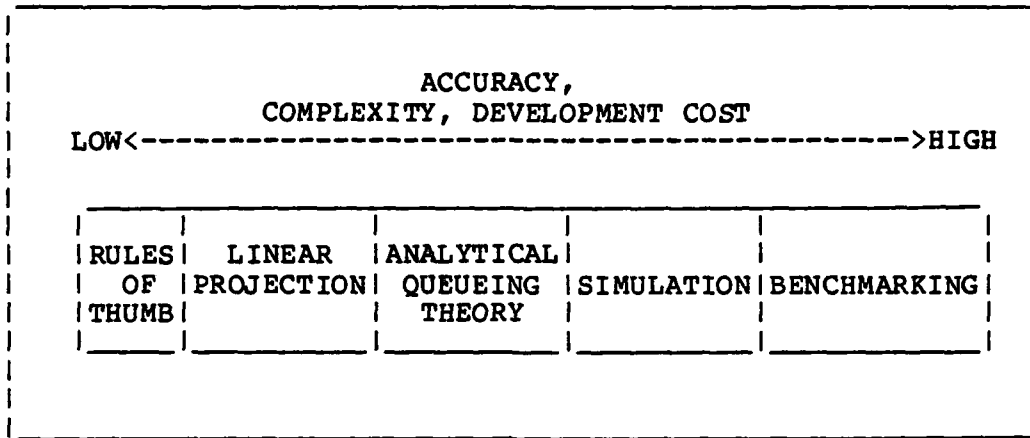


Figure 1-1 Spectrum of Computer Modeling
Techniques (Ref 1:13)

These evaluation techniques involve increases in accuracy as one moves from the very simplistic rules of thumb to the very complex benchmarking techniques (see Figure 1-1). Unfortunately, the same increase in accuracy also involves an increase in cost. The computer engineer involved in CPE must then make tradeoffs as to the amount of accuracy he can afford. These tradeoffs are extremely prevalent when comparing the two most widely used types: simulation and analytical queueing models.

There are three reasons for the increasing popularity of analytical models over simulation models for computer system modeling (Refs 1, 4, 11, 21, 23, 26, and 29):

- Analytical models capture the most important features

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of actual systems, i.e. jobs moving from one queue to another waiting for service from independent devices within the system.

- The assumptions of the analysis are realistic. General device service time distributions, load-dependent devices service times, and multiple classes of jobs can be modeled.
- The algorithms that solve the equations of the model are available as highly efficient queueing network evaluation packages. Because of their efficiency and simplicity, these models are cheaper than simulations to develop and run.

1.1.3 Development of Analytical Models in CPE

The development of more flexible analytical modeling techniques for computer system modeling has paralleled the evolution of computer systems from single-programmed, batch systems to multi-programmed, combination interactive/batch systems.

1.1.3.1 Single Queue, Infinite Population Model

The earliest techniques modeled the entire computer system as a single resource with a single queue and an infinite population of jobs (see Figure 1-2). This model was used for the early batch computers, since the CPU was the dominate resource and only one job could be in the system at a time.

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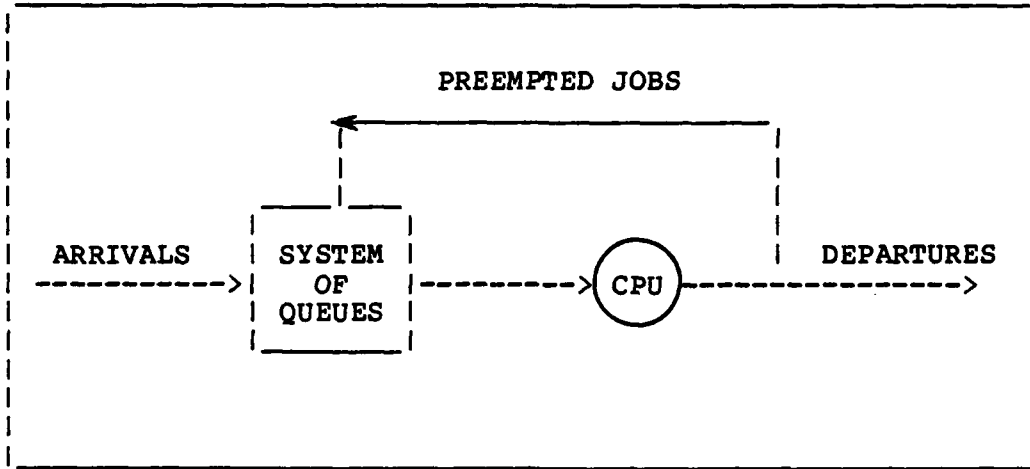


Figure 1-2 Single-resource Queueing Model (Ref 21:947).

1.1.3.2 Finite Population Model

With the advent of interactive systems, modeling the system as a single-resource queue with an infinite population of jobs became less realistic. Because there are a finite number of jobs circulating within an interactive system, the rate of arrival of new requests for service will tend to decrease as the queue length grows. The finite population model, also known as the machine interference model, was used to model this phenomena (see Figure 1-3). In the early interactive systems, only one complete job could be in memory at a time. The execution of the jobs, I/O activity, and the swapping activity were not overlapped. Therefore, program execution, I/O activity, and the swapping

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time were summed and used as the CPU service time (Ref 21:946-947).

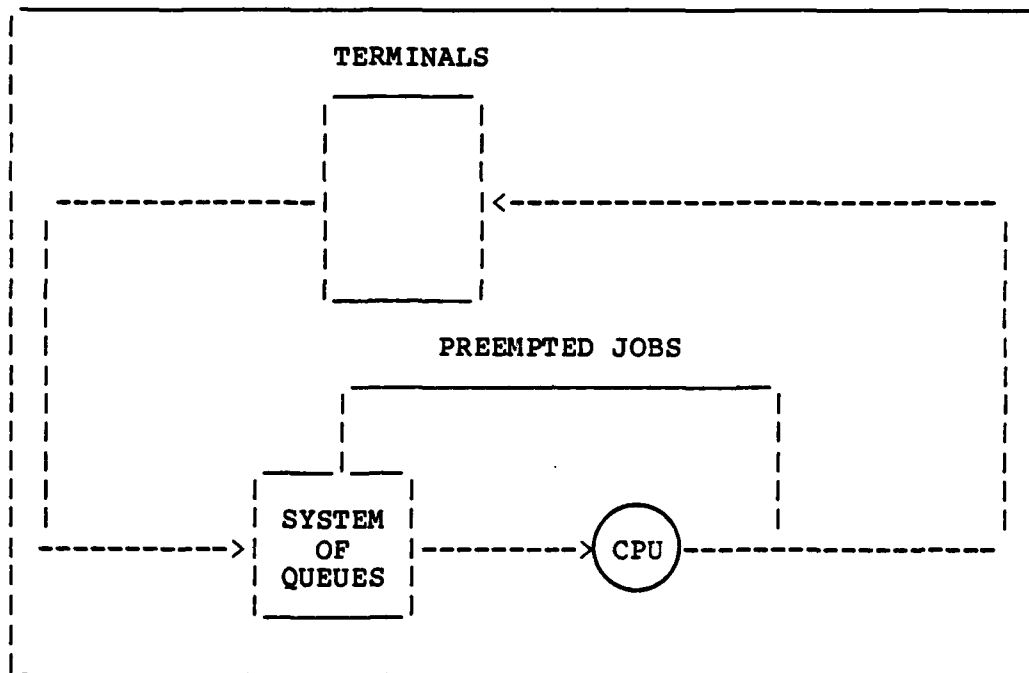


Figure 1-3 Finite Populaton Model (Ref 21:947).

1.1.3.3 Central Server Model

With the development of true multi-programming, i.e. more than one entire job within memory, the finite population models became less realistic. The most fundamental characteristic of jobs in a computer system is that they alternate between CPU execution and being blocked

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from further CPU execution waiting for access to secondary storage. With more than one job in memory, the I/O activity of one job could be overlapped with the execution of another job. A model which considers this type of behavior is shown in Figure 1-4. Note that this model still does not consider swapping times separately.

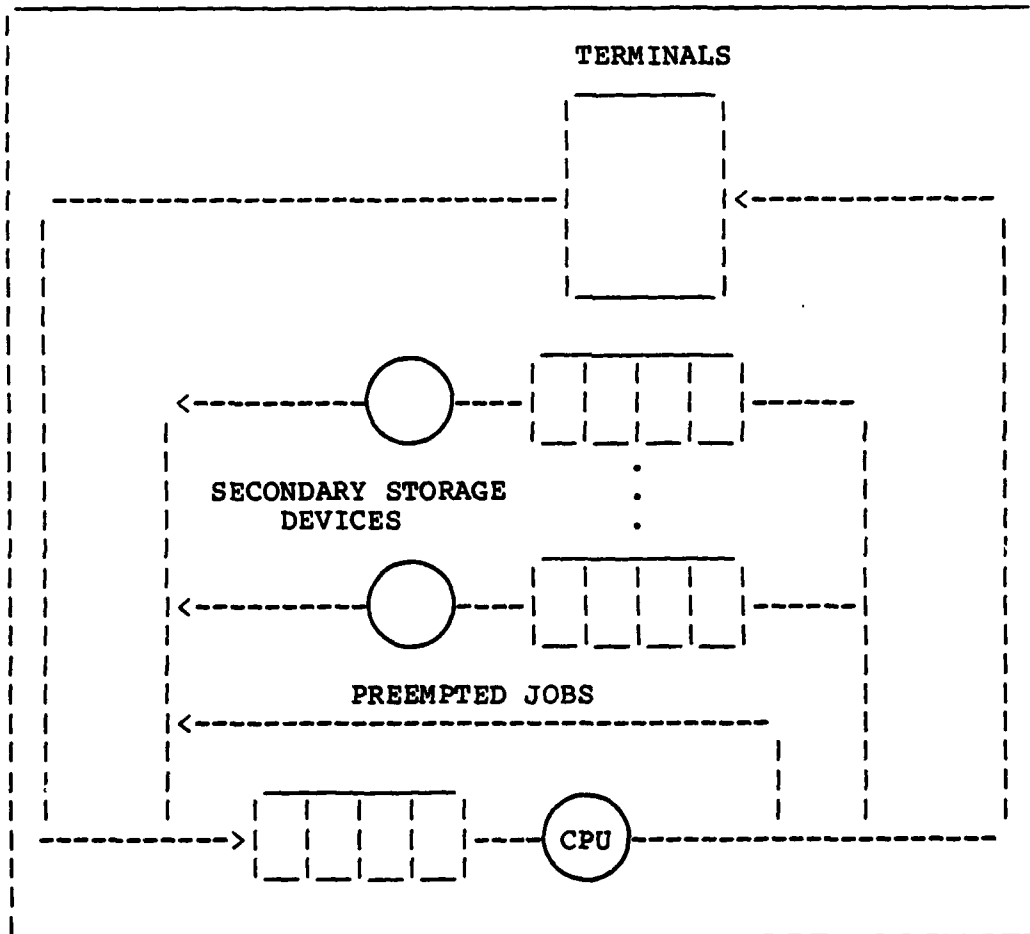


Figure 1-4 Central Server Model (Ref 3).

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1.1.3.4 Classical Swapping Model

As more and more computing systems used swapping as their memory management strategy, it became necessary to more accurately model the job swapping activities. The classical method to model job swapping explicitly was to add a swapping device node after the terminal interaction node (see Figure 1-5). Thus, each job is swapped out after each interaction with the user at the terminal (Ref 20). To improve the overall accuracy, two other improvements to the interactive model were developed (Ref 2:249)

1. Multiple classes of jobs with each class having its unique transition probabilities and node service times.
2. Non-exponential service times using the method of stages.

A more detailed account of these improvements and how they were integrated into one model is given in Chapter 3.

1.1.3.5 Chen's Swapping Model

Chen (Ref 5) proposed a new approach to modeling job-swapping behavior: that it be modeled by state-dependent transition probabilities in a closed queueing network with a

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single class of jobs. Since an exact solution to this problem does not currently exist, Chen developed an approximation algorithm that iteratively solves a closed queueing network. Chen's model is described in more detail in Chapter 3.

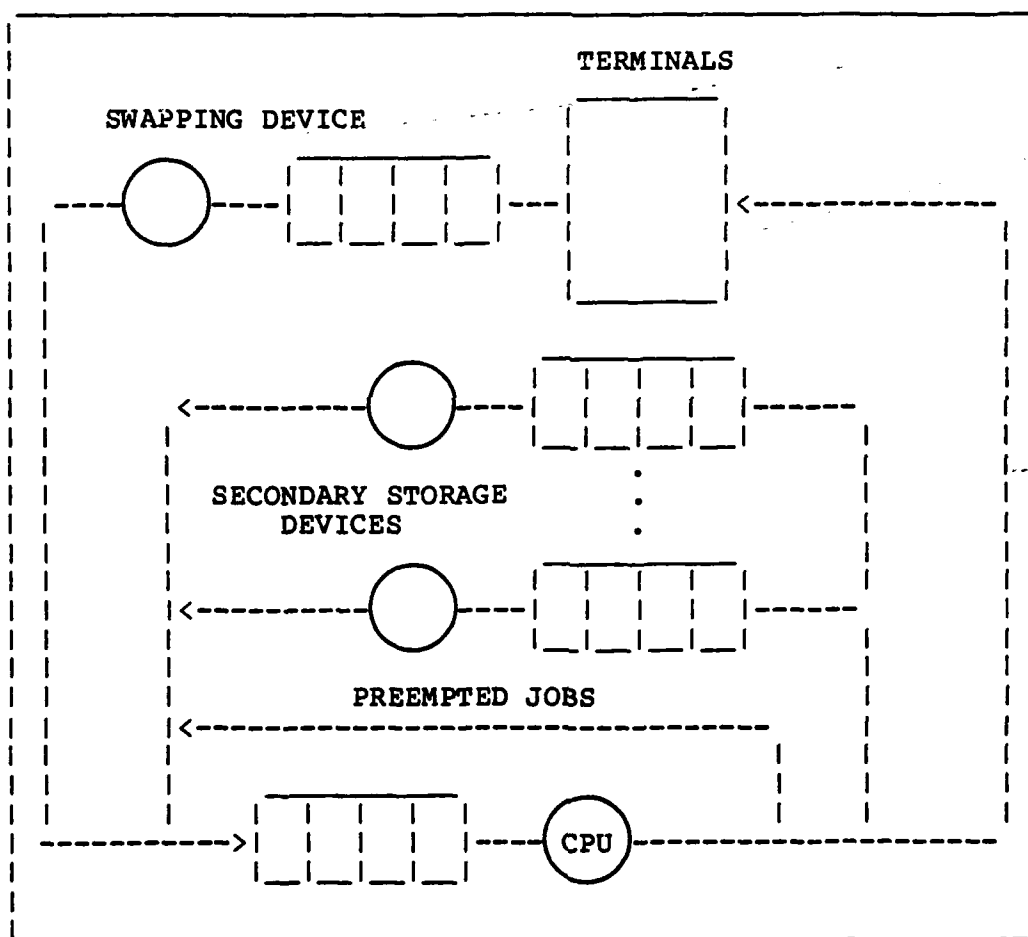


Figure 1-5 Classical Swapping Model (Ref 5).

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1.2 Problem Statement

1.2.1 Motivation for Research Objectives

The Avionics Laboratory at Wright-Patterson AFB is responsible for research, development, and validation of avionics systems for present and future aircraft in the Air Force inventory. This includes the development and validation of both the hardware (instrument displays, control consoles, etc.) and software (the computer programs that control the hardware) for navigational aids, weapons delivery systems, and electronic warfare systems. The laboratory is one of the most advanced facilities for the development and validation of avionics systems.

One of the primary test beds for avionics system development is the Digital Electronics Corporation's DECSYSTEM-10 mainframe computer. The DECSYSTEM-10 is a multi-programming, multi-processing, time-sharing computer with real-time processing capabilities. It provides high-level language support (FORTRAN, PASCAL, COBOL, BLISS, JOVIAL, and in the future ADA); assembly language support; document and manual preparation programs such as editors,

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text formatters, and spelling checkers; and graphics and plotting programs. Several mini-computers (PDP-11's) are directly interfaced to the DECsystem-10. This allows real-time communication between the DECsystem-10 and the PDP-11 which are used to control testing and simulation of current and experimental avionics systems.

Since the DECsystem-10 is such a vital Air Force resource in the research and development of state-of-the-art avionic systems, it is important that this resource is used as efficiently and effectively as possible. To insure the proper management of this resource, the system managers must have the proper tools to predict the impact of future workload changes, potential operating system changes, and reconfiguration of hardware resources. With these tools, the managers of the DECsystem-10 will gain a better understanding of the factors impacting computer performance and will be better able to make decisions to properly manage the DECsystem-10.

1.2.2 Background

In 1977 McKenzie developed a computer program to solve multi-class closed queueing networks with service centers having different service disciplines. This program was used

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to solve simple finite population and central server type queueing models of the DECsystem-10, the results of which helped the Avionics Lab to justify the purchase of additional memory. Both the results from McKenzie's limited validation and Saxton's entire thesis (Ref 24), indicated that more detailed models of the DECsystem-10 job-swapping behavior were needed (Refs 19:141 and 24:107).

1.2.3 Research Objectives

1.2.3.1 Primary Objective

The primary objective of this thesis effort was to improve the models of the DECsystem-10 by better modeling the job-swapping behavior. This will enable the system administrators to make more informed decisions concerning the present use of the computer system resources, as well as more accurate and responsive planning for future computer system acquisitions.

1.2.3.2 Specific Objectives

In order to meet the above primary objective, the following tasks were accomplished in this thesis effort:

1. The McKenzie program to compute performance measures for closed, multi-class queueing networks was brought

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up on the CDC computer. The program had to be typed in from a listing in the thesis and subsequently debugged in order to make it runnable.

2. The program was modified to include an approximation algorithm developed by Chen (Ref 5) to better model the DECSYSTEM-10 swapping behavior. By combining the multi-class modeling capability of the McKenzie program with Chen's algorithm, we now have a new, more powerful tool to accurately model the performance of an interactive computer system with job-swapping.
3. The modified program was run using a workload consisting of interactive and batch jobs and the results used to answer the following questions:
 - Does Chen's swapping model improve the accuracy of the performance predictions when compared to the classical swapping model?
 - Does combining Chen's swapping model and multiple classes improve the accuracy of the performance predictions? Specifically, is it important to model an interactive computer system containing both interactive and batch jobs with a multi-class model versus using a single class model where
 - * The single class has the weighted average of the characteristics of the batch and interactive jobs in the multi-class model; or
 - * The single class has the characteristics of the largest class of jobs in the system?

1.2.4 Scope of the Thesis

The the next chapter will discuss the objectives and basic functions of computer operating systems. This will be followed by a description of the DECSYSTEM-10's operating system in enough detail to determine how it affects job

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swapping. Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion of the state-of-the-art analytical queueing model with a product form solution developed by Basket, Chandy, Muntz, and Palacios. Chapter 3 concludes with a detailed description of Chen's swapping model and its underlying assumptions. Chapter 4 contains a description of McKenzie's computer implementation and how it was modified to include Chen's algorithm. Chapter 5 presents the results of modeling a hypothetical workload using the modified model to answer the above questions. Finally, Chapter 6 will present a summary of the conclusions as well as recommendations for future work in this area.

Chapter 2

Operating Systems and CPE

The primary method of improving the performance of an existing computer system without buying new and improved hardware is to modify the behavior of the program that controls the computer system. This program is called the operating system. Operating systems usually have built-in software parameters which may be set to allow the system administrator to implement various scheduling policies and priority schemes. Poorly chosen settings of these operating system parameters can cause inefficient use of system resources. Therefore, it is important that the system administrator has the tools to properly determine these operating system parameters. Before discussing this problem in detail and how it relates to the specific case dealt with in this paper, we will first review some of the basic objectives and functions of operating systems.

Operating Systems and CPE

2.1 Operating System Objectives

The operating system is a collection of system programs (algorithms) designed to meet the following objectives (Ref 6:2):

- Provide the programmers with an efficient environment for program development, debugging, and execution.
- Provide a range of problem-solving facilities (application programs).
- Provide all this at the lowest cost by sharing resources and information.

2.2 Resource Manager Functions

In order to meet the above objectives, the operating system must efficiently manage the systems's resources. Therefore, its primary role is that of resource manager. It must accomplish the following (Ref 18:8):

1. Keep track of the resources.
2. Enforce policy that determines who gets what, when, and how much.
3. Allocate the resources.
4. Reclaim the resources.

Operating Systems and CPE

The operating system's primary role can be broken down by resource type: memory, processors, devices (disk drives, tape drives, printers, etc.), and information (programs and data such as editors, compilers, file directories and other software resources). Below are listed the resource management functions by type and typical names given to some of the routines that perform these functions (Ref 18:9-10):

- Memory Management Functions

1. Keep track of the resource (memory). What parts are in use and by whom? What parts are not in use (called free)?
2. If multiprogramming, i.e. more than one program in execution at one time, decide which job gets memory, when it gets it, and how much.
3. Allocate the resource (memory) when the jobs request it and the policy of 2 above allows it.
4. Reclaim the resource (memory) when the job no longer needs it or has been terminated.

- CPU Processor Management Functions

1. Keep track of the resource (processors and the status of jobs). The system program that does this has been called the traffic controller.
2. Decide who will have a chance to use the processor; the job scheduler chooses from all the jobs submitted to the system and decides which one will be allowed into the system, i.e. have resources assigned to it. If multiprogramming, decide which job gets the processor, when, and how much.
3. Allocate the resource (processor) to a job by setting up necessary hardware registers; this system program is often called the dispatcher.

Operating Systems and CPE

4. Reclaim the resource (processor) when the job relinquishes processor usage, exits from the system after job completion, or exceeds allowed amount of usage and aborts.

- Device Management Functions

1. Keep track of the resource (disk and tape drives, channels, control units); this is typically called the I/O traffic controller.
2. Decide what is an efficient way to allocate the resource (device). If it is to be shared, then decide who gets it, and how much he is to get; this is called I/O scheduling.
3. Allocate the resource (device) and initiate the I/O operation.
4. Reclaim the resource (device). In most cases when the I/O terminates, the device is released automatically, but the operating system must be informed of the new status of the device.

- Information Management Functions

1. Keep track of the resource (information), its location, use, status, etc. These collective facilities are often called the file system.
2. Decide who gets use of the resources, enforce protection requirements, and provide accessing routines.
3. Allocate the resource (information), e.g., open a file.
4. Deallocate the resource, e.g., close a file.

Operating Systems and CPE

2.3 The DECsystem-10 Operating System: TOPS-10 Monitor

The TOPS-10 Monitor performs the accounting, scheduling, resource allocation, and service routines necessary to operate in a multiprogramming, time-sharing environment. It both controls user jobs and provides services to them. The monitor gives the appearance of a single-user machine to all the users on the DECsystem-10 by rapidly switching control to each user. It manages all I/O operations, according to requests from user programs and from device interrupts. It attempts to allocate all system resources in such a way as to give the best overall system performance (Ref 8:INTRO-10).

2.3.1 Monitor Programs

The monitor consists of many separate and more or less independent programs which are called according to events which occur within the system. The system programs are divided into two types depending on whether the program executes synchronously or asynchronously. Synchronous

1. The clock interrupt is an AC line generated interrupt and therefore occurs every 1/60 of a second. This time interval has been given the name "jiffy" and the term occurs frequently in DECsystem-10 literature.

Operating Systems and CPE

system programs execute once between system clock interrupts¹ and complete their function before the next clock interrupt. After each clock interrupt, the monitor cycle is executed followed by the running of a user job selected by the Job Scheduler (Ref 8). The synchronous system programs are the

CLOCK1 The system program which acts as the "main" calling program for all other system programs. This program contains the code used by the Job Scheduler to make the actual resource assignments.

Job Scheduler The system program which selects the next job to run in the remainder of the jiffy and controls the allocation of system resources. This program is also known as SCHED.

Command Processor The system program which reads in a typed command and interprets it.

Context Switching Routine The system program which transfers control to the user job selected by the Job Scheduler.

Asynchronous system programs execute on an as needed basis by jobs within the system and may have program cycles lasting longer than one jiffy. The asynchronous system programs are described below

Job Swapper The system program called by the Job Scheduler to keep as many runnable jobs in memory as possible. Even though it is called each time during the execution of the Job Scheduler (a synchronous program), the Job Swapper is not synchronous since the swapping in and out of a job usually takes several jiffies to complete. The Job Swapper

Operating Systems and CPE

"remembers" what it was doing when called by the Job Scheduler. Each time the Job Swapper is called, it continues processing where it last terminated during the last jiffy.

UUO² Processor Routine

The system program which executes whenever a job requests I/O service such as disk reads or writes.

Core Management Routine

The system program which dynamically allocates memory as needed by other system programs or user jobs.

The system programs described above and how they interact with one another during a clock interrupt is shown in Figure 2-1. All dotted arrows represent asynchronous events which may or may not occur within a monitor cycle, depending on the state of the system (Ref 8).

2.3.2 Job States

The next state transition that a job can enter depends on the current state of the job (Ref 6:31-35). The job state is represented by many status variables maintained within the monitor system program and job status tables. A job can be in one of four states (Ref 8:5-1):

2. Unimplemented User Operations (UUO) are machine language operation codes which directly call the monitor to execute supervisor level tasks such as I/O requests to system peripherals.

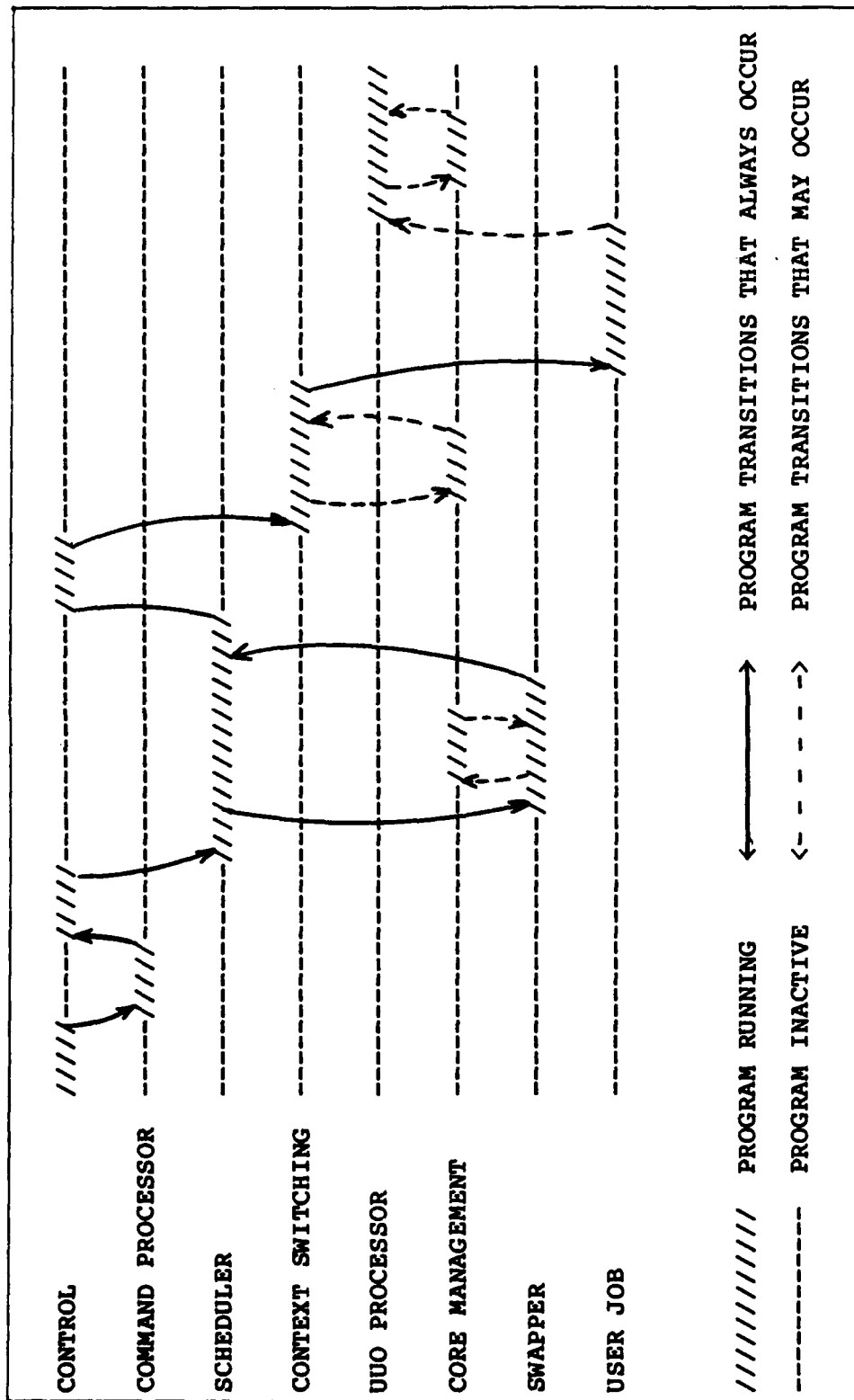


Figure 2-1 Monitor Cycle Programs

Operating Systems and CPE

1. The job is in a processor queue, has memory, and is running on a CPU.
2. The job is in a processor queue, ready to execute on a CPU. As defined by DECsystem-10 literature, a job in a processor queue is defined to be ready to execute if the job is not waiting for a shareable resource, even though the job may have no memory and must first be swapped in.
3. The job is in a short-term wait state. Jobs in this state were previously in the running state, but requested the use of a shareable resource. Jobs in the short-term wait state can not be selected to execute until they are assigned the shareable resource and are once again runnable.
4. The job is in a long-term wait state. Jobs in this state were previously in the running state, but then requested the use of a non-shareable resource. Non-shareable resources are distinguished from shareable resources by the length of time the job may have to wait to be assigned the resource. Non-shareable resources include such things as line printers or card readers, as well as less obvious non-shareable resource such as a response from a terminal.

The possible states of a DECsystem-10 are summarized in Figure 2-2. The states labeled HPQ 1-15, PQ1, and PQ2 are the processor queues and are discussed in the following section.

3. A shareable resource is some part of the system, either hardware or software, which can be used by only one job at a time, but is shared among different jobs over relatively short periods of time. Examples of shareable resources are I/O channels and disk drives used to satisfy disk I/O requests

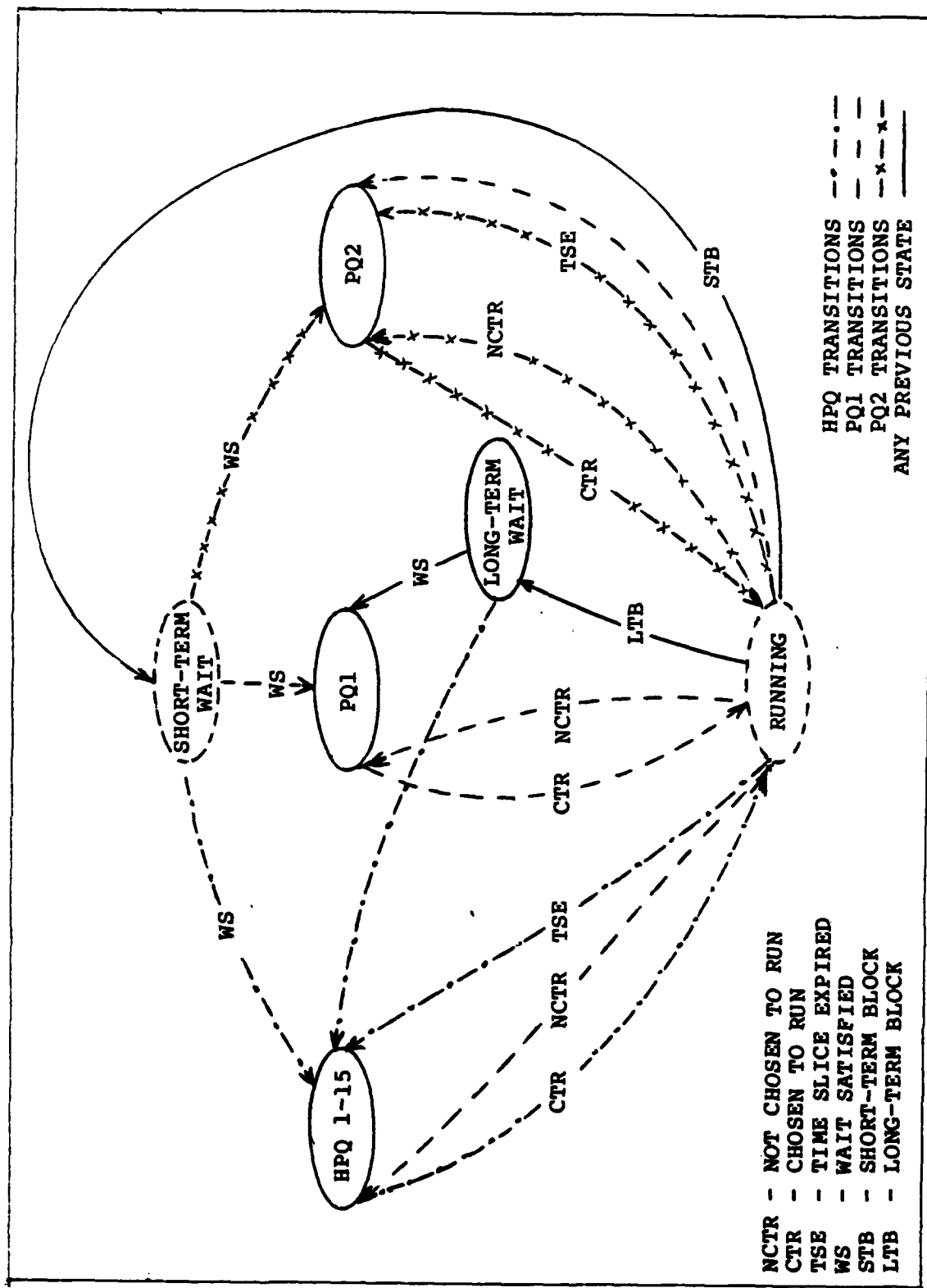


Figure 2-2 Job State Transitions

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2.3.3 Monitor Queueing Structure

Scheduling in the DECsystem-10 is based on the use of queues and wait state codes. The jobs in the system are maintained in a master set of queues, which are logically divided into long-term wait queues and processor queues.

2.3.3.1 In-core Versus Out-core Chains

Each queue in the long-term wait queues and processor queues are separated into two chains: one contains all the jobs in the queue that are in-core and the other contains all the jobs that are out-core (have no memory). This breakdown enables efficient scanning of the queues by the Job Scheduler and the Job Swapper. The scheduler only has to scan jobs in the in-core chains to find a runnable job with memory. The Job Swapper only has to scan jobs in the in-core chains to find a job to swap out to make room for a higher priority job or scan the out-core chains to find a job that needs to be swapped in (Ref 8:SCH-8).

2.3.3.2 Processor Queues

Jobs in the processor queues can either be running, ready to run (with or without memory), or in a short-term wait for a shareable resource. The processor queues are the

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high-priority queues (HPQ's), PQ1, and PQ2. Each are described below (Ref 28:2-1):

- | | |
|-------|---|
| HPQ's | (Up to 15 levels, called HPQ1 through HPQ15) contain jobs that require real-time response, such as the line-printer spooler and the card-reader spooler system programs. These queues are scanned first by the Job Scheduler to find an executable job. |
| PQ1 | Contains jobs that require fast response, such as time-sharing jobs. This queue is the next most often scanned processor queue. |
| PQ2 | Contains jobs that require long-term computing, such as those that compile programs. Jobs in this queue are scanned least often by the Job Scheduler, since fast response is not necessary. |

In addition to providing a priority structure for the Job Scheduler to scan for an executable job, it establishes a priority structure for the Job Swapper. The priority structure, though, is exactly reversed. The Job Swapper first scans PQ2, PQ1, and then the HPQ's to find a job it can swap out. The Job Swapper can not swap-out jobs performing disk I/O's and tries to avoid swapping out an executable job. Therefore, jobs in long-term wait states and other short-term wait states besides disk I/O's are the Job Swapper's primary target.

2.3.3.3 Long-term Wait Queues

The long-term wait queues hold jobs that are in a

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long-term wait state. The queues and their purpose are described below (Ref 28:2-3):

CMQ	Command Wait Queue. The user has typed a monitor command that cannot be executed until the command program is in memory, and the program is not in memory.
TIOWQ	Teletype I/O Wait Queue. Waiting for the user to type a response or waiting for the device to print output already sent to it.
JDCQ	DAEMON Wait Queue. The job is waiting for service by DAEMON. The DAEMON is a system program which runs as a user job and performs various functions such as recording accounting data or error logging required by other user jobs. It is, in effect, a non-resident portion of the monitor.
EWQ	Event Wait Queue. This queue encompasses many types of resource allocation waiting lines such as waiting for a magnetic tape controller, etc.

Jobs in a long-term wait queue are requeued to the rear of the PQ1 when their long-term wait is satisfied.

Describing the above as queues is actually a misnomer. Having a queue implies that some order exists in the queue, i.e. first-come-first serve (FCFS), last-in-first-out (LIFO), etc. In the long-term wait queues the order in which they leave the queue is not dependent on their order in the queue. Instead, the order in which they leave is totally dependent on the job characteristics. For example, even though user A may arrive before user B to the terminal

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I/O wait queue (TIOWQ), if user B responds first, he leaves the queue before user A.

The main purpose of having long-term wait queues is two fold:

- Remove jobs from the processor queues so that the Job Scheduler does not waste time scanning jobs that are not expected to become runnable for long periods of time.
- Provide a set of queues that the Job Swapper can scan first to find a job to swap-out to make room for other jobs.

The important thing to note here is that when there are more jobs than can fit in memory, jobs in the long-term wait queues will be swapped from the in-core chain to the out-core chain before jobs in the processor queues.

2.3.3.4 Processor Queue Time Slices

Other factors, besides which queue the job is in, affect the likelihood that a job will be swapped. These include how long it can be in memory without becoming eligible for swap-out and its position in the queue. These two factors are determined by the time slice assigned to a job.

When a job enters one of the processor queues, it is

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assigned a time slice. The time slice consists of two components: the in-core protect time (ICPT) and the quantum run time (QRT). The ICPT and QRT are actually counts. The ICPT is the number of times the Scheduler can try to execute the job before the job becomes eligible for swap-out. The QRT is the number of times the Scheduler can execute the job before it is requeued to the rear of a processor queue.

Each time the Job Scheduler scans a job to see if it is executable, the ICPT is decremented. Note that the Job Scheduler may not execute a job because it is in some short-term wait state, but the ICPT is still decremented. When this count reaches zero, the job becomes eligible for swap out. The ICPT provides a mechanism wherein the swapper is prevented from immediately swapping out a job which has just been swapped in, and in effect "locks" the job in memory until its ICPT is zero (Ref 8).

Each time the Job Scheduler chooses a job to execute, that job's QRT is decremented. When the QRT reaches zero, the job either requeues to a lower priority queue, e.g. PQ1 jobs requeue to the end of the PQ2 queue, or the job requeues to the rear of the queue it is in, e.g. PQ2 and HPQ jobs requeue to the rear of their respective queue. When treated in this way, the QRT limits the amount of CPU

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time the job receives in a particular queue, thus providing a fairness consideration in assigning CPU time. Also, since the Job Swapper usually scans the processor queues from back to front, jobs that have most recently expired their QRT and were requeued to the rear of the queue are more likely to be swapped out (Ref 8). This provides a fairness consideration in assigning the use of main memory.

PQ1 Time Slice

The PQ1 time slice is the amount of time that a job receives fast interactive response after being swapped in. The QRT of the PQ1 queue is usually much smaller than other processor queues in order to provide quick response to interactive jobs. The short QRT will be sufficient for interactive jobs before they become blocked to a long-term wait state, e.g. waiting for terminal response. The more CPU-intensive jobs will expire their QRT and be requeued to the lower priority PQ2 queue. There, they will be assigned a new, much larger QRT, but now have a lower priority for execution and a greater likelihood of being swapped out.

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PQ2 Time Slice

For PQ2 jobs, the parameters for ICPT and QRT control the bias of the scheduler for throughput versus response and for I/O versus CPU. Throughput versus response is controlled by increasing or decreasing the magnitude of both parameters. As the parameters are increased, jobs expire their time slices more slowly, swapping rate decreases, and less core is allocated for swapping. These effects improve throughput, but average response is correspondingly degraded because interactive jobs wait longer to swap in. When you decrease both parameters the effect is reversed. I/O versus CPU response is controlled by changing the ratio of ICPT to QRT. Increasing only QRT favors CPU-bound jobs. Increasing only ICPT favors I/O-bound jobs, while reducing it tends to favor CPU-bound jobs (Ref 28:5-3).

2.4 Chapter Summary

The following are the important aspects to remember about the TOPS-10 Monitor

- The Monitor executes every jiffy at which time the Job Scheduler selects a job to run the remainder of the jiffy.

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- Jobs in the system can be in one of four states
 1. Executing on the CPU.
 2. Ready to run but waiting for its turn to execute on the CPU.
 3. In a short-term wait state waiting for a shareable resource.
 4. In a long-term wait state waiting for a non-shareable resource.
- Jobs in the system wait in processor queues for the CPU or for shareable resources while jobs waiting for non-shareable resources wait in the long-term wait queues. Interactive jobs wait for terminal response in a long-term wait queue.
- The processor queues and the long-term wait queues are divided into in-core chains (jobs that have memory) and out-core chains (jobs without memory that will have to be swapped in).
- Jobs in the long-term wait queues will be swapped from the in-core chain to the out-core chain before jobs in the processor queues.
- The time slices assigned to jobs by the Job Scheduler are made up of two components: the incore protect time (ICPT) and the quantum run time (QRT).
 - * The ICPT provides a mechanism where in the swapper is prevented from immediately swapping out a job which has just been swapped in, and in effect "locks" the job in memory until its ICPT is zero.
 - * The QRT limits the amount of CPU time the job receives in a particular queue, thus providing a fairness consideration in assigning CPU time.
 - The short QRT in PQ1 will be sufficient for interactive jobs before they become blocked to a long-term wait state while more CPU-intensive jobs will expire their QRT and be requeued to PQ2 where they will be assigned a new, much larger QRT.

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- The longer QRT in PQ2 provides the extensive processing needs of jobs needing large amounts of CPU processing. The ratio of the PQ2 QRT and the ICPT determines the scheduler's bias towards CPU-intensive jobs versus I/O intensive jobs.

Chapter 3

Analytical Modeling

3.1 Early Queueing Network Models

Jackson (Ref 14) and Gordon and Newell (Ref 10) give solutions for the case of networks of queues with the following assumptions

1. There are a finite number of nodes, M .
2. There are a fixed finite number of customers, N .
3. The manner in which customers visit the various resources is governed by a transition matrix $P = [p_{ij}]$, where p_{ij} is the probability that a customer departing from node i will next visit node j .
4. The service time distributions at nodes are exponentially distributed.
5. The service rate may be a function of the number of customers.
6. All customers are identical in that their routing probabilities and service times at the M nodes are the same.

For this class of models, a state of the model is given by the number of customers at each node. Thus the set of states is just

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$$(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_M) \mid \sum_{i=1}^M n_i = N$$

The equilibrium state probabilities are given by

$$P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_M) = C \prod_{i=1}^M \frac{\lambda_i^{n_i}}{\prod_{j=1}^{n_i} u_i(j)}$$

where

- λ_i The mean arrival rate to the i^{th} node.
- $u_i(j)$ The instantaneous departure rate from the i^{th} resource when there are j customers queued at this node.
- C The normalization constant is chosen so that all the equilibrium state probabilities sum to one.

The calculation of C can be very time consuming since the number of states is

$$\binom{M + N - 1}{N}$$

However, methods of calculating C have been found which increase only as MN^2 (Ref 3) allowing larger queueing networks to be solved.

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3.2 Multi-class Queueing Network Model

The earliest queueing models developed by Jackson and Gordon and Newell, and the computational algorithm derived by Buzen suffered from two limitations:

1. Only one class of customers was allowed in the network.
2. All the service time distributions were exponential.

Recently developed queueing models addressed many of the important aspects of applying queueing models to time-sharing computer systems such as multi-class jobs and non-exponential service time distributions. Still, no one unified model existed to describe all these aspects of time-sharing systems.

The model developed in reference 2 by Basket, Chandy, Muntz, and Palacios and described below accomplished this unification. It combined recent results on the networks of queues of several different service disciplines and a broad class of service time distributions with earlier results on networks of queues containing different classes of customers. This model thus more accurately describes a time-shared computer system.

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3.2.1 Variables in the Model

The model describes a system with an arbitrary but finite number (N) of service centers with an arbitrary but finite number (R) of job classes. The routes through the network of service centers for the R classes of jobs is determined by a probability transition matrix $P = [P_{i,r;j,s}]$, where $P_{i,r;j,s}$ is the probability of a class r job at service center i going to service center j as a class s job. The transition matrix defines a Markov chain assumed to be decomposable into m subchains, E_1, E_2, \dots, E_m .

Let n_{ir} be the number of jobs of class r at service center i in state S_j of the network model. Also let

$$M(S/E_j) = \sum_{(i,r) \in E_j} n_{ir}$$

be the total number of jobs within the subchain. Then

$$M(S) = \sum_{j=1}^m M(S/E_j)$$

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is the total number of jobs in the network. A system is closed when $M(S/E_j) = \text{constant}$, $1 < j < m$.

3.2.2 Open Network Outside Arrival Processes

In an open network the arrivals to node in a queueing network can be external from the network. The fixed probability of an outside arrival of a class r customer at service center i is q_{ir} . The probability of a class r job leaving the system from service enter i is

$$1 - \sum_{\substack{1 < j < N \\ 1 < s < R}} p_{i,r;j,s}$$

The external arrival process can be state dependent and is of two general types

1. The arrival rate, $\lambda(M(s))$ is dependent on the total number of customers in the system, $M(S)$.
2. The arrival rate, $\lambda_j(M(S/E_j))$ is decomposed into m Poisson arrival streams corresponding to the m subchains described above. The m arrival rates are dependent on the number of customers in the subchain, $M(S/E_j)$.

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3.2.3 Service Time Distributions

Exponential, hyperexponential, and hypoexponential distributions are eligible service time distribution for this model. Also, any service time distribution that can be represented as a network of states can be used as a service time distribution. In this method of stages technique, u_{ir1} represents the service rate of a job in service stage 1 at service center i who is in class r . There are s_{ir} service stages for a job in class r at node i . The probability of going to the next stage is a_{ir1} , while the probability of completing service is b_{ir1} . These concepts are illustrated in Figure 3-1.

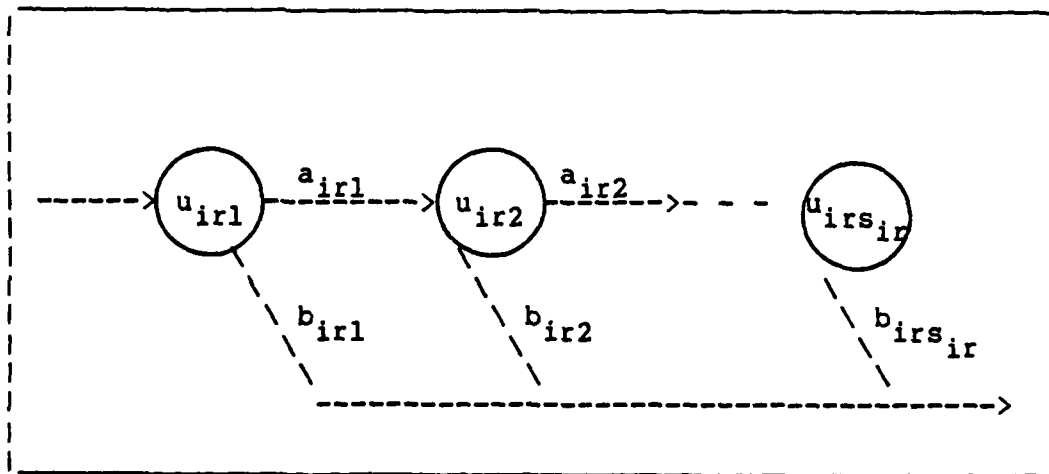


Figure 3-1 Method of Stages.

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3.2.4 State-dependent Service Rates

Three types of state-dependent service rates can be incorporated into the Basket, et. al. model

1. The service rate at a service center can depend on the total number of jobs at that service center. This form of state-dependent service rate is useful to model multiple, identical servers. If there are k_i identical servers at service center i , then by taking the service rate with one job present and multiplying it by the following function

$$x_i(n_i) = \begin{cases} n_i, & 1 \leq n_i < k_i \\ k_i, & n_i \geq k_i \end{cases}$$

we obtain the service rate for service center i .

2. The service rate of a job class can depend at a service center on the number n_{ir} of class r jobs at service center i .
3. The service rate of a service center can depend on the number of jobs at other service centers in the network.

Note that these various forms of state-dependent service rates can be mixed.

3.2.5 Service Center Types

Service centers can be one of four types:

1. The service discipline is first-come-first-served (FCFS).

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- All customers have the same service time distribution at this service center.
- The service time distribution must be a negative exponential.
- Only state-dependent service rate types 1 and 3 can be used.

This type of service center is most often used to model the I/O devices such as disks, drums, and tape drives in a computer system.

2. The service discipline is processor sharing (PS), i.e. when there are n_i customers in the service center, each is receiving service at a rate of $1/n_i$ times the service center's rate for its job class.
 - Each class of customer can have a distinct service time distribution.
 - All three service time distributions can be used.
 - All three state-dependent service rate types can be used.

This type of service center is most often used to model a central processor that uses a round-robin scheduling algorithm. This is appropriate since round-robin scheduling approaches the processor sharing service time as the round-robin time quantum approaches zero.

3. The number of servers in the service center is greater than or equal to the maximum number of customers that can be at this center in a feasible state (this is the infinite server (IS) case).
 - Each class of customer can have a distinct service time distribution.
 - All three service time distributions may be used.
 - All three state-dependent service rate types can be used.

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This type of service center is most often used to model the terminal users in a time-sharing computer system.

4. The service discipline is preemptive-resume last-come-first-served (LCFS)
 - Each class of customer can have a distinct service time distribution.
 - All three service time distributions can be used.
 - All three state-dependent service rate types can be used.

This type of service center is most often used to model a central processor in which jobs can preempt other jobs using the processor.

3.2.6 States of the Model

The state of the model is represented by a vector (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) where x_i represents the state of service center i . The representation of the state of the service center is dependent on the type of service center.

3.2.6.1 Type 1 Service Center

If service center i is of type 1, then $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik})$, where $k = n_i$ is the number of customers at center i and x_{ij} ($1 < j < n_i$, $1 < x_{ij} < R$) is the class of customer who is j th in FCFS order. The first customer is

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served while the remainder are waiting for service. This type of service center state space is very large since one must not only account for the number of customers of each type, but the order of the queue must be properly represented.

3.2.6.2 Type 2 and Type 3 Service Centers

If service center i is of type 2 or 3, then $x_i = (v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{iR})$, where v_{ir} is a vector $(m_{1r}, m_{2r}, \dots, m_{k_r})$ where $k = s_{ir}$. The l^{th} component of v_{ir} is the number of customers of class r in center i and in the l^{th} stage of service. The number of stages for a class r customer at service center i is s_{ir} . Note here that a state is distinguished from another state by the number of customers, the class of the customer, and the stage of service of the customer, but not the order of the customers at the service center since there is no waiting line for these service disciplines.

3.2.6.3 Type 4 Service Centers

If the service center is of type 4, then $x_i = ((r_1, m_1), (r_2, m_2), \dots, (r_n, m_n))$ where the ordered pair (r_j, m_j) describes the j^{th} customer in LCFS order,

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i.e. r_j is the class of the customer and m_j is the stage of service of the customer. Note again that like the type 1 service centers, a queue exists and one must take into account the order of customers in the queue if there is more than one class.

3.2.7 Calculating Equilibrium State Probabilities

3.2.7.1 Balance Equations

The balance equation technique for the solution of equilibrium state probabilities is based on the concept that the rate of customers transitioning into a state is equal to the rate of customers transitioning out of the state, or more formally, for all states, S_j ,

$$\sum_{\substack{\text{all states} \\ S_j}} P(S_j) [\text{rate of flow } S_j \rightarrow S_i] = P(S_i) [\text{rate of flow out of } S_i]$$

These are the global balance equations of the queueing network. The balance equations establish a set of linear equations which can then be solved for the equilibrium state probabilities.

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A second type of balance equation for a queueing network exists, that of independent (local) balance. This concept equates the rate of flow into a state by a customer entering a stage of service to the flow out of that state due to the customer leaving that stage of service. A customer can be associated with a stage of service in the following ways

1. If the customer is in service at a service center (always the case in type 2 or 3 service centers), then he is in one of the stages of his service time distribution at that service center.
2. If the customer is queued at a service center (only possible for type 1 or 4 service centers), then he is in the stage of his service time distribution he will enter when he is next served. For FCFS this is stage 1; for LCFS this is the stage of service when last preempted.

3.2.7.2 Product Form Solution

Before presenting the solution to this type of queueing network, we must first define a few additional terms.

Additional Notation

Each of the subchains defined above has associated with it a set of linear equations of the form

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$$\sum_{(i,r) \in E_k} e_{ir} p_{i,r;j,s} + q_{js} = e_{js}, \quad (j,s) \in E_k$$

where q_{js} is the rate of exogenous arrivals of class s customers to service center j . If $q_{js}=0$ $(j,s) \in E_k$, then the network is closed with respect to E_k . In the case of closed networks, the above linear equations do not provide a unique solution. By setting the value of one of the e_{ij} a unique solution can be obtained. For convenience, one of the e_{ir} is set to 1, which allows the rest of the e_{ir} to be interpreted as relative arrival rates of class r customers to service center i (relative in that the arrival rates e_{ir} times the rate of the e_{ir} that was set to 1). Note that the network may be closed with respect to less than m of the subchains E_k .

One more term that appears in the product form solution needs to be defined. This is the probability that the r^{th} class at service center i is in the l^{th} stage of service, denoted as

$$A_{irl} = \prod_{j=1}^l a_{irj}$$

where a_{irj} is defined as in Figure 3-1.

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The Theorem

For a network of service stations which is open, closed, or mixed in which each service center is of type 1, 2, 3, or 4, the equilibrium state probabilities are given by

$$P(S = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = C d(S) f_1(x_1) f_2(x_2) \dots f_N(x_N)$$

where C is a normalizing constant chosen to make the equilibrium state probabilities sum to 1, $d(S)$ is a function of the number of customers in the system, and each f_i is a function that depends on the type of service center i .

If service center i is of type 1, then

$$f_i(x_i) = (1/u_i)^{n_i} \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} [e_{ixij}]$$

If service center i is of type 2, then

$$f_i(x_i) = n_i! \prod_{r=1}^R \prod_{l=1}^{s_{ir}} [e_{ir} A_{irl} / u_{irl}]^{m_{irl}} (1/m_{irl}!)$$

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If service center i is of type 3, then

$$f_i(x_i) = \prod_{r=1}^R \prod_{l=1}^{s_{ir}} [e_{ir} A_{irl} / u_{irl}]^{m_{irl}} (1/m_{irl}!)$$

If service center i is of type 4, then

$$f_i(x_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} [e_{ir_j} A_{ir_j m_j} (1/u_{ir_j m_j})]$$

If the arrivals to the system depend on the total number of jobs in the system, $M(S)$, and the arrivals are of class r and for center i according to fixed probabilities p_{ir} , then

$$d(S) = \prod_{i=0}^{M(S)-1} \lambda(i).$$

If we have the second type of state-dependent arrival process, then

$$d(S) = \prod_{j=1}^m \prod_{i=0}^{M(S/E_j)-1} \lambda(i).$$

If the network is closed, $d(S) = 1$.

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3.2.8 Example Problem

To illustrate the concepts defined above, a very simple example will be formulated. First, the global and independent balance equations for the problem will be defined using the "rate-in = rate-out" concept. Then the

Table 3-1 Transition Matrix and Service Rates.

Probability Transition Matrices by Job Class				
	Job Class 1		Job Class 2	
	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.2
	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
Service Rates by Job Class				
Node	Job Class 1		Job Class 2	
1	1.0		1.0	(processor sharing)
2	2.0		1.0	(infinite server)
$N_1 = 2 \quad N_2 = 2 \quad s_{ir} = 1 \quad R = 2$				

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equilibrium state probabilities will be solved for using the product form solution. These solutions will be verified by substituting the values in some of the balance equations to demonstrate that they do indeed solve the balance equations.

The example will consist of a closed queueing network with two service centers. There will be two classes of jobs with two jobs from each class in the network. Service center 1 will use the processor-sharing service discipline, while service center 2 will use the infinite server service discipline. This network is a very simple model of an interactive time-sharing computer system where service center 1 represents the computer and service center 2 represents the terminal users. The values of the probability transition matrix and service rates are shown in Table 3-1 along with a summary of the problem statement.

3.2.8.1 The Balance Equations

The state of the system can be represented as an ordered 4-tuple $(n_{11}, n_{21}, n_{12}, n_{22})$ where the first subscript represents the service center and the second represents the class. Therefore, n_{11} is the number of jobs at service center 1 from job class 1.

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Given the transition matrix and service rates in Table 3-1, the state transition diagram is as shown in Figure 3-2. Using the diagram in Figure 3-2 the global and local balance equations can be derived. The global balance equations of this example are shown in Figure 3-3. The local balance equations are shown in Figure 3-4.

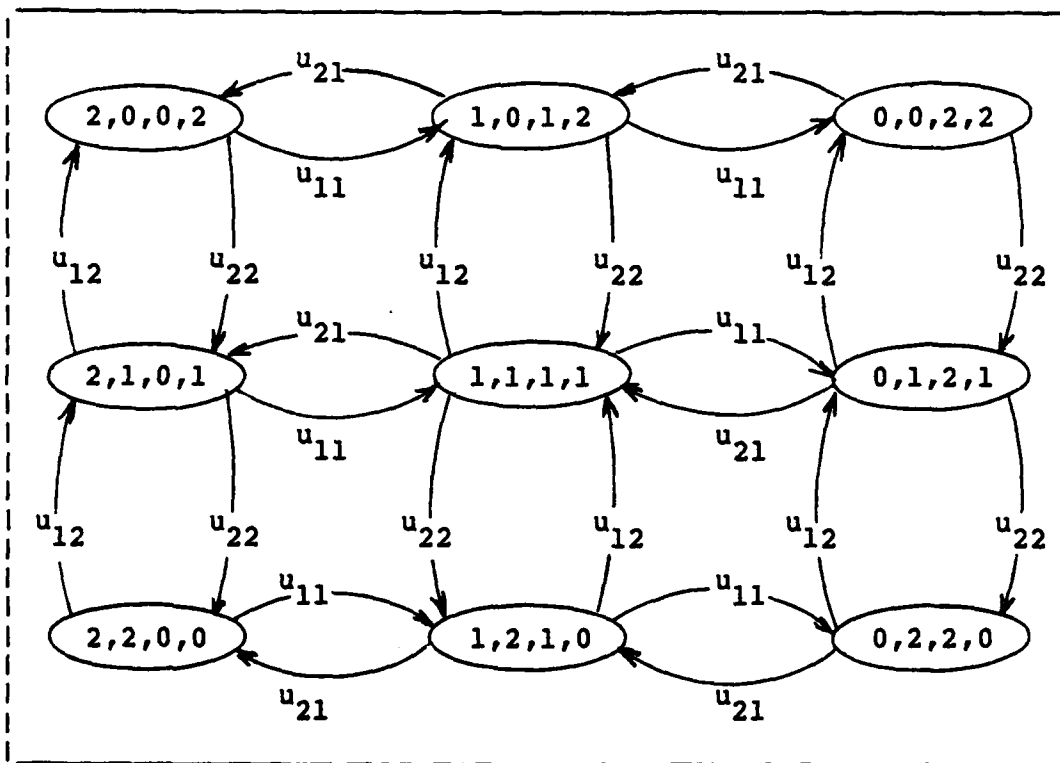


Figure 3-2 State Transition Diagram.

1. $P(2,0,0,2) \{u_{22}(2)(1) + u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.4+.6)\} = P(2,1,0,1) u_{12}(1/(1+2))(.2) +$
 $P(1,0,1,2)u_{21}(1)(1) + P(2,0,0,2)u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.6)$
2. $P(1,0,1,2) \{u_{21}(1)(1) + u_{11}(1/(1+0))(.4+.6) + u_{22}(2)(1)\} =$
 $P(2,0,0,2)u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.4) + P(1,1,1,1)u_{12}(1/(1+1)) + P(0,0,2,2) u_{21}(2)(1) +$
 $P(1,0,1,2)u_{11}(1/(1+0))(.6)$
3. $P(0,0,2,2) \{u_{21}(2)(1) + u_{22}(2)(1)\} = P(1,0,1,2)u_{11}(1/(0+1))(.4) +$
 $P(0,1,2,1)u_{12}(1/(0+1))(.2)$
4. $P(2,1,0,1) \{u_{12}(1/(1+2))(.2+.8) + u_{11}(2/(2+1))(.4+.6) + u_{22}(1)(1)\} =$
 $P(2,0,0,2)u_{22}(1/(0+1))(1) + P(1,1,1,1)u_{21}(1)(1) + P(2,2,0,0)u_{12}(1/(2+1))(.2) +$
 $P(2,1,0,1)u_{11}(2/(2+1))(.6) + P(2,1,0,1)u_{12}(1/(2+1))(.8)$
5. $P(1,1,1,1) \{u_{11}(1/(1+1))(.4+.6) + u_{12}(1/(1+1))(.2+.8) + u_{21}(1)(1)\} =$
 $P(1,0,1,2)u_{22}(2)(1) + P(0,1,2,1)u_{21}(2)(1) + P(1,2,1,0)u_{12}(2/(1+2))(.2) +$
 $P(2,1,0,1)u_{11}(2/(2+1))(.4) + P(1,1,1,1)u_{11}(1/(1+1))(.6) +$
 $P(1,1,1,1)u_{12}(1/(1+1))(.8)$

Figure 3-3 Global Balance Equations

6. $P(0,1,2,1)\{u_{12}(1/(0+1))(.2+.8) + u_{21}(2)(1) + u_{22}(1)(1)\} = P(0,0,2,2)u_{22}(2)(1) +$
 $P(0,2,2,0)u_{12}(2/(0+2))(.2) + P(1,1,1,1)u_{11}(1/(1+1))(.6) +$
 $P(1,1,1,1)u_{12}(1/(1+1))(.8)$
7. $P(2,2,0,0)\{u_{11}(2/(2+2))(.4+.6) + u_{12}(2/(2+2))(.2+.8)\} = P(2,1,0,1)u_{22}(1)(1) +$
 $P(1,2,1,0)u_{21}(1)(1) + P(2,2,0,0)u_{11}(2/(2+2))(.6) + P(2,2,0,0)u_{12}(2/(2+2))(.8)$
8. $P(1,2,1,0)\{u_{11}(1/(1+2))(.4+.6) + u_{12}(.2+.8) + u_{21}(1)(1)\} = P(1,1,1,1)u_{22}(1)(1) +$
 $P(0,2,2,0)u_{21}(2)(1) + P(2,2,0,0)u_{11}(2/(2+2))(.4) + P(1,2,1,0)u_{11}(1/(1+2))(.6) +$
 $P(1,2,1,0)u_{12}(2/(1+2))(.8)$
9. $P(0,2,2,0)\{u_{12}(2/(0+2))(.2+.8) + u_{21}(2)(1)\} = P(0,1,2,1)u_{22}(1)(1) +$
 $P(1,2,1,0)u_{11}(1/(1+2))(.4) + P(0,2,2,0)u_{12}(2/(2+2))(.8)$

Figure 3-3 Global Balance Equations (cont.)

1. $P(2,0,0,2)\{u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.4 + .6)\} = P(2,0,0,2)u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.6) +$
 $P(1,0,1,2)u_{21}(1)(1)$
2. $P(2,0,0,2)\{u_{22}(2)(1)\} = P(2,1,0,1)u_{12}(1/(2+1))(.2)$
3. $P(1,0,1,2)\{u_{11}(1/(1+0))(.4 + .6)\} = P(1,0,1,2)u_{11}(1/(1+0))(.6) +$
 $P(0,0,2,2)u_{21}(2)(1)$
4. $P(1,0,1,2)\{u_{21}(1)(1)\} = P(2,0,0,2)u_{11}(2/(0+2))(.4)$
5. $P(1,0,1,2)\{u_{22}(2)(1)\} = P(1,1,1,1)u_{12}(1/(1+1))(1)$
6. $P(0,0,2,2)\{u_{21}(2)(1) = P(1,0,1,2)u_{11}(1/(0+1))(.4)$
7. $P(0,0,2,2)\{u_{22}(2)\} = P(0,1,2,1)u_{12}(1/(0+1))(.2)$
8. $P(2,1,0,1)\{u_{11}(2/(2+1))(.4+.6)\} = P(2,1,0,1)u_{11}(2/(2+1))(.6) +$
 $P(1,1,1,1)u_{21}(1)(1)$

Figure 3-4 Independent (Local) Balance Equations

9. $P(2,1,0,1) [u_{12}(1/(2+1)) (.2+.8)] = P(2,1,0,1) u_{12}(1/(2+1)) (.8) +$
 $P(2,0,0,2) u_{22}(1/(0+1)) (1)$
10. $P(2,1,0,1) [u_{22}(1)(1)] = P(2,2,0,0) u_{12}(1/(2+1)) (.2)$
11. $P(1,1,1,1) [u_{11}(1/(1+1)) (.4+.6)] = P(1,1,1,1) u_{11}(1/(1+1)) (.6) +$
 $P(0,1,2,1) u_{21}(2)(1)$
12. $P(1,1,1,1) [u_{12}(1/(1+1)) (.2+.8)] = P(1,1,1,1) u_{12}(1/(1+1)) (.8) +$
 $P(1,0,1,2) u_{22}(2)(1)$
13. $P(1,1,1,1) [u_{21}(1)(1)] = P(2,1,0,1) u_{11}(2/(2+1)) (.4)$
14. $P(1,1,1,1) [u_{22}(1)(1)] = P(1,2,1,0) u_{12}(2/(1+2)) (.2)$
15. $P(0,1,2,1) [u_{12}(1/(0+1)) (.2+.8)] = P(0,1,2,1) u_{12}(1/(0+1)) (.8) +$
 $P(0,0,2,2) u_{22}(2)(1)$
16. $P(0,1,2,1) [u_{21}(2)(1)] = P(1,1,1,1) u_{11}(1/(1+1)) (.4)$

Figure 3-4 Independent (Local) Balance Equations (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}
& P(0,1,2,1) \{u_{22}(1)(1)\} = P(0,2,2,0) u_{12}(2/(0+2)) (.2) \\
17. & P(2,2,0,0) \{u_{11}(2/(2+2)) (.4+.6)\} = P(2,2,0,0) u_{11}(2/(2+2)) (.6) + \\
& P(1,2,1,0) u_{21}(1)(1) \\
18. & P(2,2,0,0) \{u_{12}(2/(2+2)) (.2+.8)\} = P(2,2,0,0) u_{12}(2/(2+2)) (.8) + \\
& P(2,1,0,1) u_{22}(1)(1) \\
19. & P(1,2,1,0) \{u_{11}(1/(1+2)) (.4+.6)\} = P(1,2,1,0) u_{11}(1/(1+2)) (.6) + \\
& P(0,2,2,0) u_{21}(2)(1) \\
20. & P(1,2,1,0) \{u_{11}(2/(1+2)) (.2+.8)\} = P(1,2,1,0) u_{12}(2/(1+2)) (.8) + \\
& P(1,1,1,1) u_{22}(1)(1) \\
21. & P(1,2,1,0) \{u_{21}(1)(1)\} = P(2,2,0,0) u_{11}(2/(2+2)) (.4) \\
22. & P(0,2,2,0) \{u_{12}(2/(0+2)) (.2+.8)\} = P(0,2,2,0) u_{12}(2/(0+2)) (.8) + \\
& P(0,1,2,1) u_{22}(1)(1) \\
23. & P(0,2,2,0) \{u_{21}(2)(2)\} = P(1,2,1,0) u_{11}(1/(1+2)) (.4)
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 3-4 Independent (Local) Balance Equations (cont.)

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3.2.8.2 The Product Form Solution

Since there are no stages of service in either service center, the function $f_1(x_1)$ and $f_2(x_2)$ can be simplified to the following

$$f_1(x_1) = n_1! \prod_{r=1}^2 [e_{1r}/u_{1r}]^{m_{1r}} (1/m_{1r}!)$$

$$f_2(x_2) = \prod_{r=1}^2 [e_{2r}/u_{2r}]^{m_{2r}} (1/m_{2r}!)$$

Solving for the e_{ir} above for this example, we get the following linear equations for class 1 jobs

$$e_{11} = .6e_{11} + e_{21}$$

$$.4e_{11} = e_{21}$$

and for class 2 jobs

$$e_{12} = .8e_{12} + e_{22}$$

$$.2e_{12} = e_{22}$$

which yield the following solutions for the e_{ir} 's

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$$e_{11} = 1.0$$

$$e_{21} = 0.4$$

$$e_{12} = 1.0$$

$$e_{22} = 0.2$$

Table 3-2 Example Calculations

State	$f_1(x_1)$	$f_2(x_2)$	P(state)
(2,2,0,0)	3/2	1	1.5C = .670
(1,2,1,0)	3/4	.4	.3C = .134
(2,1,0,1)	3/2	.2	.3C = .0356
(1,1,1,1)	1	.08	.08C = .0356
(0,1,2,1)	1/2	.016	.008C = .00356
(1,0,1,2)	1	.008	.008C = .00356
(0,0,2,2)	1	.0016	.0016C = .000715
(0,2,2,0)	1/4	.08	.02C = .00894
(2,0,0,2)	1	.02	<u>.02C = .00894</u>
			2.2376C = 1 =>
			C = .4469

The results of the computation are shown in Table 3-2. The solutions can be verified by substituting them into some

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of the balance equations. For example, substituting the equilibrium probabilities into the 24th independent balance equation, we get

$$(.00894)(1)(2)(1) = (.134)(1)(1/3)(.4)$$

$$.01787 = .01787$$

and for the 17th balance equations

$$(.003575)(1)(1)(1) = (.00894)(2)(1)(.2)$$

$$.003575 = .003575$$

Therefore the product form solution of the above theorem provides solutions to the balance equations of this problem.

3.3 Chen's Swapping Model

The classical swapping model described in Chapter 1, along with the inclusion of multi-class jobs and non-exponential service times, provides a very flexible model of a computer system and its job swapping behavior. But the model still is not completely realistic; job

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swapping behavior is more complex and should depend on the main memory size, the number of jobs competing for memory, and the job sizes.

Chen (Ref 5) proposed a new approach: that job swapping behavior be modeled by state-dependent routing probabilities in a closed queueing network with a single class of jobs. The probability that a program needs to be swapped in (or out) is expressed as a function of the system state, the individual job characteristics, and main memory size. Unfortunately, this type of queueing model has no known exact solution. Therefore, Chen developed a successive-approximation algorithm that iteratively solves a closed queueing network. When two successive iterations yield results that are within specified tolerances of each other, the swapping model is solved. Chen's model and algorithm are described below.

3.3.1 Variables in the Model

First we will consider a simple model of an interactive computer system described by Chen (Ref 5) and shown in Figure 3-5. This system consists of one CPU, one disk, one swapping drum, and a set of terminals. Queues exist for the CPU, swapping drum, and disk, but no queue is necessary for

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the terminal node since there is a "server" (terminal user) at each active terminal.

The variables in the model are

- Number of jobs in the system (N).
- Main memory size (user area) (M).
- Average job size (J).
- Average CPU service time ($1/u_1$).
- Average disk I/O time ($1/u_2$).
- Average time to swap a job in and out of memory ($1/u_3$).
- Average user think time ($1/u_4$).
- Average CPU time needed per interaction (T_{CPU}).
- Average number of disk I/O requests per interaction (N_{DIO}).
- Average job size (J).

These variables above are used to calculate the probability transition matrix $P = P_{ij}$ where P_{ij} is the probability a job being serviced at node i will request the service of the node j . In terms of the context of the model, the meaning of some of the important P_{ij} 's are given below

- | | |
|----------|--|
| P_{43} | The probability that the job is not in main memory and needs to be swapped in. |
| P_{41} | The probability that the job is already in main memory and does not need to be swapped in. |

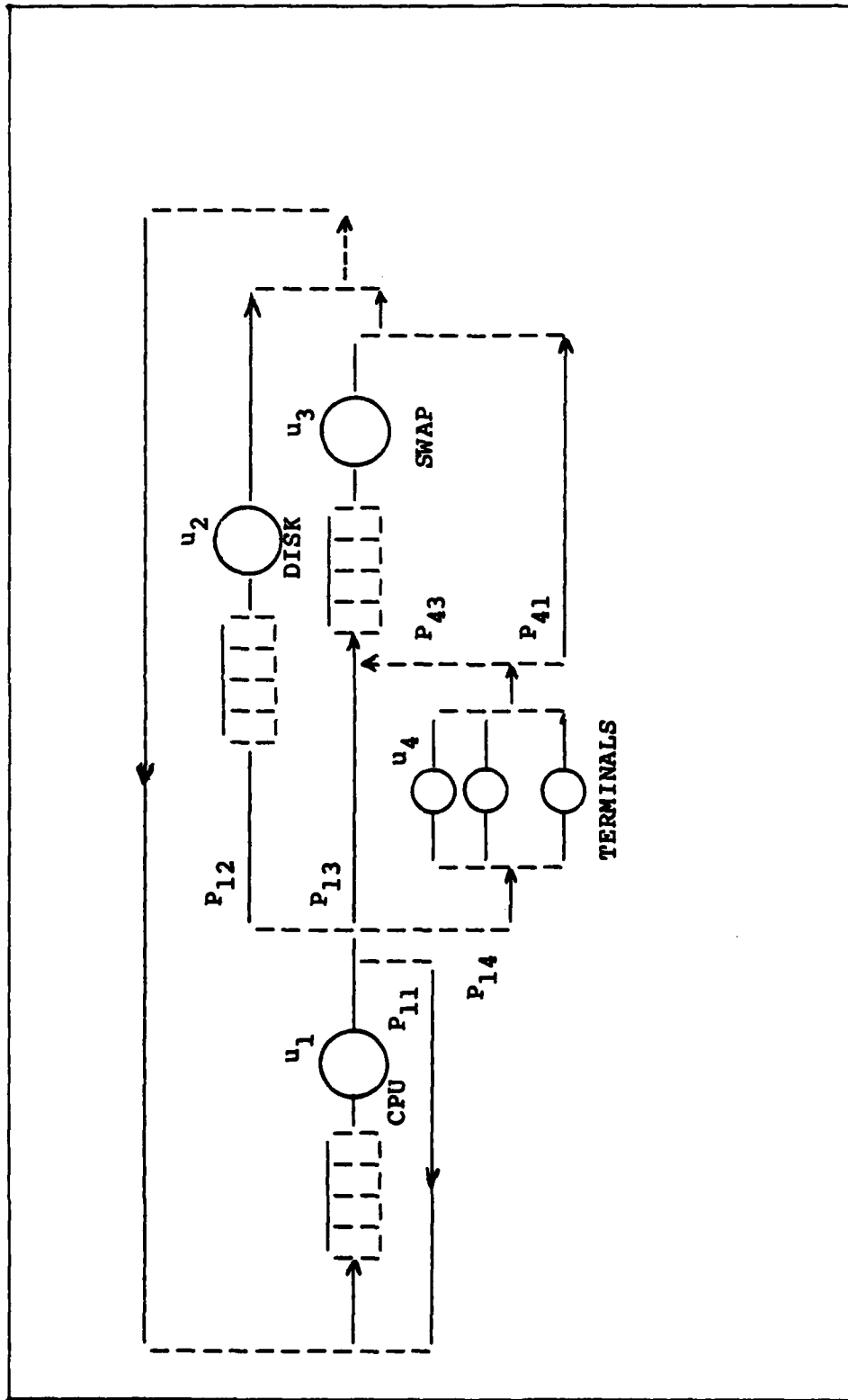


Figure 3-5 Chen's Swapping Model

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P_{11}	The probability that the job's time quantum has expired
P_{12}	The probability that the job needs information on a disk file or needs to write its results to a disk file.
P_{13}	The probability that the main memory size is not sufficient and the job must be swapped out.

The state-dependent probabilities in Chen's algorithm are P_{11} , P_{43} , P_{41} , and P_{13} . Note that P_{41} and P_{13} are always zero in the simpler classical swapping model contained in Chapter 1. A general form of the probability transition matrix in Chen's model is shown in Table 3-3.

3.3.1.1 Derivation of P_{14} and P_{12}

Consider a typical sequence of events where 'i' represents the job leaving the CPU for an interaction at the terminal node and 'c' represents the job requesting another CPU service of $1/u_1$ seconds (on the average). A typical sequence would then look like

cc...cicc...cicc...

The number of CPU requests before an interaction would then be geometrically distributed and the average number of CPU service completions per interaction, N_{CPU} , would be

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$$N_{CPU} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k P_{14} (1 - P_{14})^{k-1} = 1/P_{14} \quad (1)$$

Table 3-3 Probability Transition Matrix
for Chen's Swapping Model

P_{11}	P_{12}	P_{13}	P_{14}
1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
P_{41}	0.0	P_{43}	0.0

The average CPU time needed per interaction is equal to the product of the average number of times the job requests CPU service times the service rate or

$$T_{CPU} = 1/u_1 N_{CPU} = (1/u_1)(1/P_{14})$$

therefore we have

$$P_{14} = 1/(u_1 T_{CPU}) \quad (2)$$

It follows immediately that since there are N_{CPU} CPU service completions and N_{DIO} of them must have been due to an I/O

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request, then

$$P_{12} = N_{DIO}/N_{CPU} = N_{DIO} P_{14}$$

(3)

3.3.2 Program Swapping Behavior

The job swapping behavior is represented by the state-dependent routing probabilities P_{43} and P_{13} . Since there are several memory management schemes that can be implemented in an operating system, the expressions for P_{43} and P_{13} will vary from system to system. Chen derived expressions for these probabilities that are reasonable for the TOPS-10 Monitor on the DECSys-10. Their derivations and the assumptions for their derivations are discussed below.

3.3.2.1 Derivation of P_{43}

The assumptions made for deriving P_{43} are as follows
(Ref 5:955)

1. Each job in the main memory is allocated the same amount of memory. Therefore, the maximum number of jobs that can be allocated in the main memory simultaneously is a constant and denoted by A.

$$A = \lfloor M/J \rfloor$$

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This assumption is justified since main memory is partitioned into a fixed number of parts and interactive jobs usually will fit in the same number of partitions.

2. Among all jobs in the main memory, the jobs in the "think" mode have the highest priority to be swapped out if memory space is needed for the jobs to be swapped in. This assumption is justified since many computer systems use this memory management strategy (Ref 5). Jobs in the "think" mode are very unlikely to need CPU service in the near future. This is true since the average think time is measured in seconds, while most other activities in the system occur in the millisecond or even microsecond range. In the DECsystem-10, jobs contained in the TIOWQ correspond to jobs in the think mode.

Let n_i denote the number of jobs at node i . If the total number of jobs in the system is less than the number of jobs that can fit in memory ($N < A$), then no swapping activity is necessary. In most cases, though, N is greater than A , and so $N - A$ jobs cannot be in memory. Since the n_4 jobs in the think mode have the highest priority to be swapped out (Assumption 2), these will be swapped out until $N - A$ jobs are swapped or until all jobs in the think mode are swapped out. Therefore, the probability that a job needs to be swapped in at the beginning of an interaction, P_{43} , is equal to the probability that a job in the think mode is not

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in main memory. Chen uses the approximation

$$P_{43} = \begin{cases} (N-A)/n_4 & n_4 > N - A \text{ and } N > A \\ 0 & N \leq A \\ 1 & n_4 \leq N - A \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

and therefore the probability that a job does not need to be swapped in at the beginning of the interaction is

$$P_{41} = 1 - P_{43} \quad (5)$$

3.3.2.2 Derivation of P_{13}

To derive P_{13} , two more assumptions must be made (Ref 5:955)

1. P_{13} is linearly related to the difference between number of active jobs ($n_1+n_2+n_3$) and the maximum number of jobs (A) that can fit in memory, if that difference is positive. The difference, $n_1+n_2+n_3-A$, is the number of jobs which need memory but can not have it. When this difference is positive, then some of these jobs as well, as the jobs in the think mode, must be swapped out. When this difference is less than or equal to zero, P_{13} is zero. This models the TOPS-10 Monitors swapping behavior of choosing jobs in long-term wait queues, e.g. interactive jobs waiting for terminal response or batch jobs waiting for a tape to be mounted, over jobs that are in the processing queues and more likely to run.

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2. In the worst case, the maximum number of times that a job will be swapped out before the end of the interaction is one. This assumption represents the ICPT's effect of locking the job in memory

Assumption 1 tells that P_{13} reaches a maximum when $n_1+n_2+n_3$ reaches its maximum value N . This maximum value can be determined using similar reasoning used in the derivation of Equation (3). By assumption 2 the maximum number of times a job can be swapped out is one. So the maximum probability of being swapped out is

$$P_{13} = N_{\text{SWAP}}/N_{\text{CPU}} = 1/(1/P_{14}) = P_{14}$$

Therefore, from assumption 1, P_{13} varies linearly from 0 to P_{14} as $n_1+n_2+n_3$ varies from A to N . Noting that P_{11} , P_{12} , P_{13} , and P_{14} must sum to 1, thus being bounded by $1-P_{12}-P_{14}$, and combining the above observations, we have

$$P_{13} = \begin{cases} \min[1-P_{12}-P_{14}, P_{14}((n_1+n_2+n_3-A)/(N-A))] & n_1+n_2+n_3 > A \text{ and } N > A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

and therefore

$$P_{11} = 1-P_{13}-P_{12}-P_{14}$$

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to insure the probabilities sum to one.

3.3.2.3 Approximation Algorithm

The above formulation makes the probability transition matrix of Table 3-3 dependent on n_4 , i.e. the probability transition matrix is state-dependent. Unfortunately, this queueing network model has no exact solution known, so Chen proposes using the following approximation algorithm (Ref 5:956)

- Step 1 Assume an initial value for n_4 .
- Step 2 Use n_4 to calculate P_{43} and P_{13} by Equations (4) and (6).
- Step 3 Solve the model as a closed queueing network with fixed probabilities using Buzen's method.
- Step 4 If the new value of n_4 is very close to its previous value, the algorithm stops. Otherwise, Steps 2, 3, and 4 are repeated.

According to Chen, the algorithm will always converge since the sequence of computed values of n_4 is either monotonically increasing or decreasing and is bounded between 0 and N. Also, from Chen's computational experience, the algorithm converges to the same point, independent of its starting value.

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3.4 Chapter Summary

The following items are the important points brought out in this chapter

- Early models developed by Gordon and Newell, Jackson, and Buzen were restricted to single class networks with exponential servers. Baskett, et. al. consolidated later models which included multi-class networks and the method of stages to form one unified model.
- The Baskett, et. al. model provided a more accurate model of time-sharing systems, but the model still was not completely realistic; job swapping behavior is more complex and should depend on the main memory size, the number of jobs competing for memory, and the job sizes.
- Chen developed a model to make job swapping behavior depend on memory size, the number of jobs competing for memory, and the jobsizes, but failed to include the more general multi-class queueing networks. Also, his development only considered the single CPU and single disk system, and left the multiple CPU and multiple disk system as an extension.

In the next chapter we will look at the structure of the McKenzie FORTRAN program and how it was modified to include Chen's algorithm. Combining McKenzie's program with Chen's algorithm extended the Chen algorithm to multiple classes.

Chapter 4

Computer Implementation

The computational effort for the product form solution of a queueing network can be quite large for anything but very simple networks (see example in Chapter 3). Therefore, to compute the solutions to queueing networks containing many nodes and job classes, one must perform the computations for the product form solution on a computer.

The first section in this chapter describes the McKenzie computer program. This is followed by a section describing the modifications made to McKenzie's program to implement Chen's swapping model. After the Chen modifications are described, the next section discusses some of the pitfalls and problems encountered in this current effort to modify the program. The last section summarizes the chapter.

Computer Implementation

4.1 The McKenzie Program

In 1977 McKenzie developed a computer program to solve multi-class closed queueing networks with service centers having different service disciplines. This program provides a flexible tool to model interactive computer systems, but is limited to product form solutions of closed queueing networks. The program was modified to include Chen's model (see Chapter 3) to more accurately model job-swapping behavior.

4.1.1 Program Capabilities

The computer program is based on the model of Baskett, et. al. (Ref 2) and the computational algorithms of Wong (Ref 30). Wong's computational algorithms implement a subset of the entire Basket et. al. theory. The limitations of the model are

- No outside arrivals can enter the network, i.e. the model is a closed queueing network.
- Jobs cannot transition from one job class to another at a service center.
- The third type of state-dependent service rate is not contained in the model. (see Chapter 3 for the types of state-dependent service rates)

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4.1.2 Program Structure

McKenzie's computer program was written in FORTRAN IV. The program is modular in nature. It is divided into five subroutines called from the main program. The names of the subroutines and their functions are described below

INDATA	Reads the data necessary to run the program. The characteristics of the time-sharing computer system being modeled are input in this routine.
FUNCT	Calculates the values for the functions in the product form solution for each node in the network. These are used to calculate the joint and marginal probability density functions for each node.
NORMAL	Calculates the normalization constant for the model. The normalization constant assures that the system state probabilities sum to one.
MARGIN	Calculates the marginal probability density functions for each node in the network.
EXPECT	Calculates the probability that there are k users of class j at a node and the total probability over all classes of jobs that there are k users at a node. Using these probabilities, it then calculates node utilizations by job class, expected queue length probability distribution and their expected values by job class, mean time spent at each node by each job class, and system response times by job class.

In addition to these programs written by McKenzie, five other routines peculiar to the CDC computer at AFIT are used

WRITMS	A random access routine to write records to mass storage.
--------	---

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READMS	A random access routine to read records from mass storage.
OPENMS	Initializes a file for random record reads and writes.
CLOSEMS	Updates the master index in the file after all records have been read or written.
LEQ1TF	A subroutine that solves simultaneous linear equations.

The documentation on the random record routines is contained in reference 7. LEQ1TF documentation is contained in reference 13.

The WRITMS is used at the end of INDATA, FUNCT, NORMAL, and MARGIN to save the computed values for each node on a random access file for further processing by the next subroutine. The READMS is used at the beginning of FUNCT, NORMAL, MARGIN, and EXPECT to retrieve the results of the calculations for each node from the preceding routine in the program flow (see Figure 4-1). OPENMS and CLOSEMS are used at the very beginning of the program and the very end of the program. The calculations are done node by node since the memory requirements necessary to store the entire network's state space would exceed the CDC computers memory resources for all except trivially small networks.

The subroutine LEQ1TF is used in INDATA to compute the node departure rates using the probability transition

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matrices and node service times for each class.

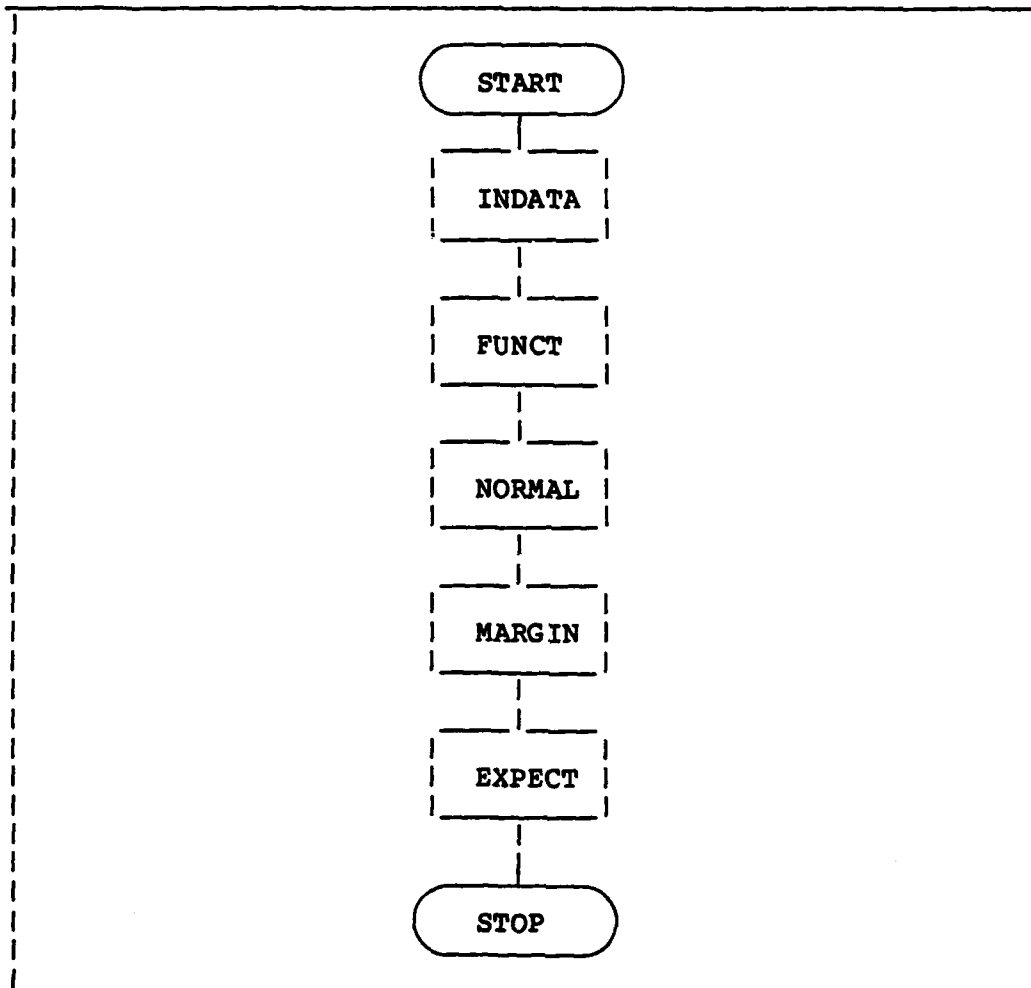


Figure 4-1 McKenzie Program Flow Chart

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4.1.3 Program Inputs

The program inputs and formats are described in detail in Appendix C of McKenzie's thesis and will not be discussed here.

4.2 The Chen Modification

4.2.1 Program Structure

To implement Chen's algorithm, McKenzie's program had to be modified to

1. Read in the system configuration data necessary to use Chen's algorithm.
2. Compute the initial probability transition matrix for each class of job using the input data and Chen's formulae discussed in Chapter 3. The initial probability transition matrix is computed using Chen's formulae and then converted to the transition matrix for the classical swapping model.
3. Recompute the probability transition matrix for each class based on results from the previous iteration. Use this new probability transition matrix to compute the product form solution to the corresponding queueing model.
4. Stop iterating if the solution has converged, i.e. the absolute difference between the number of jobs in the think mode calculated in the previous iteration compared to the current iteration is within a specified tolerance, or if the maximum number of iterations allowed has been exceeded.

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These modifications were localized to the main program and two subroutines in order to retain as much of McKenzie's structure as possible. INDATA was almost completely rewritten in order to read in the variables in Chen's model. One major benefit in this modification is that input to the model is now read in freefield format, i.e. data does not have to appear in certain columns in the data file. This will decrease the chance of human error when typing in the input to the model.

EXPECT was slightly modified in order to stop it from printing the results of every iteration. Now the results are printed for the first iteration, every fifth iteration, and then the final iteration.

The major changes to the McKenzie program to include Chen's algorithm were incorporated in the subroutines CHEN75 and COMPUTE. At the beginning of each iteration, CHEN75 is called, which in turn calls COMPUTE to recompute the probability transition matrix for each class of job in the network using the formulae from Chen's model.

Chen's model was also extended to include multiple disk drives. Given that a job from a particular class needs a disk I/O, one must define the disk access probabilities for

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each disk in the system. Defining N_{DISKS} to be the number of disks in the system, and $P_{\text{DIO}}(i)$ the probability of performing the disk I/O on the i^{th} disk, then the probability transition matrix is modified as shown below

P_{11}	$P_{12} * P_{\text{DIO}}(1) \dots P_{1(N_{\text{DISKS}} + 1)} * P_{\text{DIO}}(N_{\text{DISKS}})$	P_{13}	P_{14}
1	0 ... DISKS 0	0	0
.	.	.	.
.	(N_{DISKS} times)	.	.
.	.	.	.
1	0 ... 0	0	0
P_{41}	0 ... 0	P_{43}	0

To conform to normal probability transition matrix notation, the subscripts are renumbered. For example, in the case of a system with six disks, the subscripts are changed so that P_{13} becomes P_{18} , P_{14} becomes P_{19} , P_{41} becomes P_{91} , etc.

The changes described above are illustrated in the new flow chart for the program shown in Figure 4-2.

4.2.2 Program Inputs

The input to the new program is simpler now, since all input data values are read in freefield, instead of requiring the values to be in particular columns. All that

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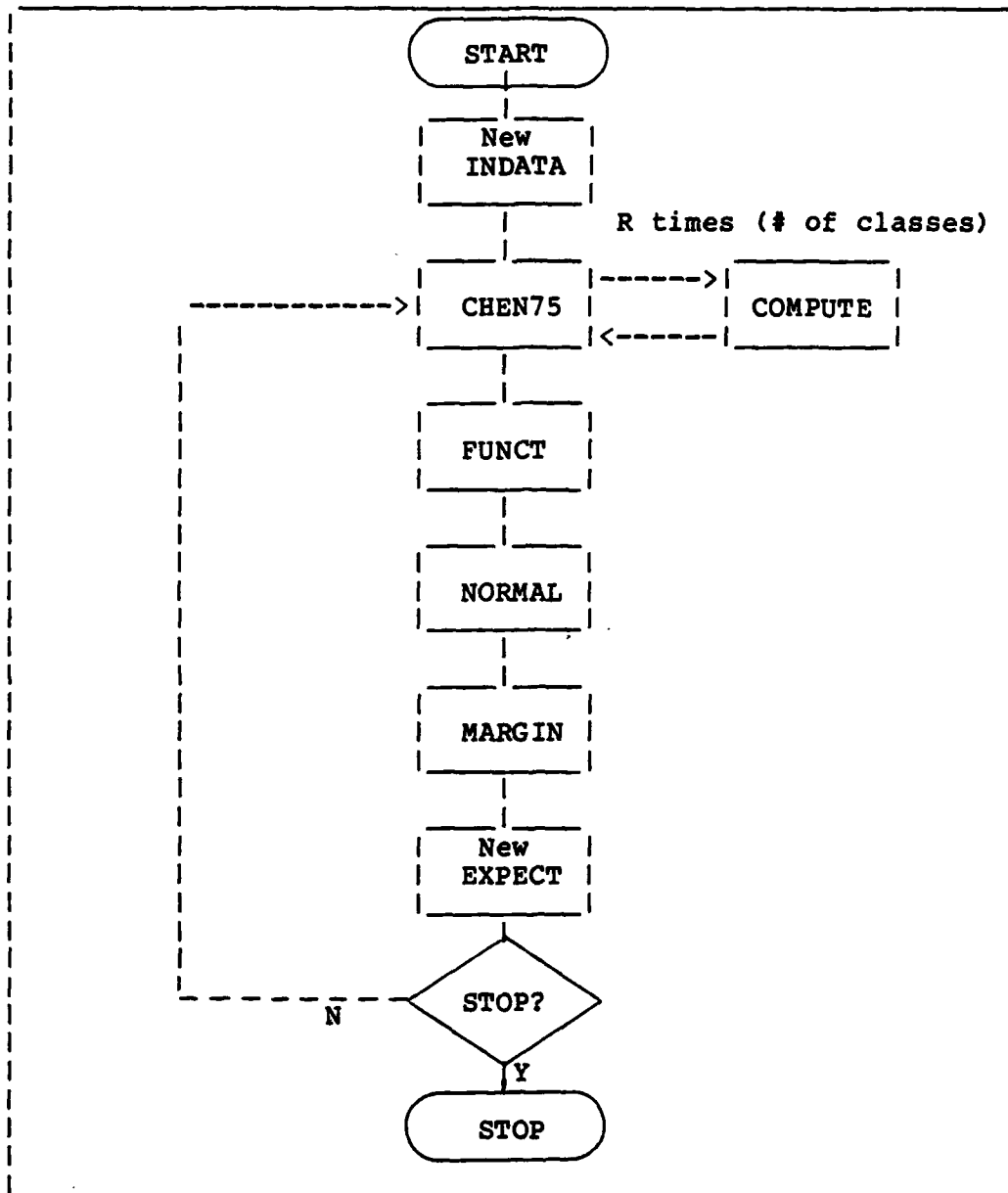


Figure 4-2 New Program Flow Chart

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is necessary is that the input data values be separated by at least one space. The data could be entered on one line until that line is filled up and continue in that fashion for subsequent lines. Instead, it is recommended that the data be entered in the following manner (the names in capital letters are the FORTRAN variable names)

- **Network description.** Enter the number of nodes and number of job classes in the network.

NODES, ITYPES

- **Computer system configuration.** Enter the number of disk drives in the I/O subsystem and the size of main memory available for user jobs.

NDISKS, SIZEMEM

- **Workload configuration.** If possible, enter the following workload configuration parameters on separate lines

1. Disk access probabilities by class for each disk. If possible, put the probabilities for each disk on separate lines. There would then be NDISKS lines.

DISKPRB(I,J) (probability that a member
of the j^{th} class
accesses the i^{th} disk)

2. Job class characteristics. Put the characteristics for each class on a separate line. This includes the number of jobs in the class, the CPU time per interaction (T_{CPU}), the number of disk I/O's per interaction (N_{DIO}), and average job size of the class. There should be ITYPES lines of job class characteristics.

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(NUSERS(J), TCPU(J), DIO(J), SIZEJOB(J))

- **Node characteristics.** The node characteristics include the following

1. Node type (FCFS (NODETYP(I)=1), PS (NODETYP(I)=2), IS (NODETYP(I)=3), and LCFS (NODETYP(I)=4)).
2. Types of state-dependent service rates can be None (IDEP(I)=1), number of total jobs at node (IDEP(I)=2), number of jobs in a particular class at the node (IDEP(I)=3).
3. Service rate for job class J and node I (SERVICE(I,J)).
4. State-dependent service rates. If IDEP(I) was not 1, then the state-dependent service rate data must be entered. The entered values represent the ratio of the service time when there is a total of one job at the node (IDEP(I)=2) or when there is one job of a particular class (IDEP(I)=3). For example, to model two identical servers, one would set IDEP(I)=2 and enter

1.0 2.0 2.0 ... 2.0

into array (DEP(I,1,K), K=1, MAXUSER) The number of entries is equal to the maximum number of users of all types in the network (MAXUSER).

4.3 Programming Notes for Future Modification

If future thesis students decide to work with the program used in this thesis, the student should be aware of some possible pitfalls. The problems encountered when

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making changes to the program are described in the following paragraphs.

The original McKenzie program depended on the operating system to initialize the variables in the model to zero. Unfortunately, the CDC NOS/BE operating system no longer zeros out the memory locations before loading a program, but instead sets them to a special value signifying an indefinite value. In the process of modifying the program, all uninitialized variables were initialized to zero for each iteration. Some variables may have slipped by, though, so if any "Error Mode 4-- Indefinite Value" messages appear after modifying the program, check for uninitialized variables.

In order to have a variably dimensioned array passed to a FORTRAN IV subroutine, one must not only pass the variable dimension value, but also the memory space (in the form of an array from the main program). That is the reason the subroutine parameter lists are so large. Unfortunately, if one passes incorrect dimensions of a passed array to the subroutine, no syntax error is generated. Instead, when the program is run, it will produce one of possibly several mode errors. Therefore, when making any changes to the dimensions of the arrays in the main program, be sure to

AD-A115 565 AIR FORCE INST OF TECH WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB OH SCH00--ETC F/G 9/2
MULTI-CLASS ANALYTICAL MODELS OF THE DECSYSTEM-10 JOB-SWAPPING --ETC(11)
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UNCLASSIFIED AFIT/GOR/MA/81D-4 NL

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change the appropriate variables (MAXNODE, MAXTYPE, MAXUSER, MAXSTAT, MAXUSE1, and ISIZE3) to match the true dimensions.

Finally, one must be careful that the inputs for the model are consistent. Specifically, a common and somewhat obscure error is to define a probability transition matrix that unintentionally isolates a node from the network. This causes the departure rate from that node to be zero. When the subroutine FUNCT is called to compute the functions used in the product form solution for that transition matrix, that zero value is used as a base in an exponential expression (line 34) which can have a zero exponent. Since zero to the zero power is undefined, another mode error is produced; this time "Error Mode 2--infinite operand". Therefore, always make sure the probability transition matrix used in the computations is well-defined.

4.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, we have reviewed the basic structure of the McKenzie program and the functions of its five subroutines. The modifications made to this program were identified, and the new subroutines CHEN75 and COMPUTE discussed. The modifications were made with the objective

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of retaining as much of the original McKenzie model as possible. All of the changes to the original program were in the main program, INDATA, and EXPECT. The addition of Chen's algorithm was accomplished by including CHEN75 and COMPUTE. Finally, some programming notes on this author's experience with modifying the program were presented. Briefly, these included

1. If any "Error Mode 4-- Indefinite Value" messages appear after modifying the program, check for uninitialized variables.
2. When making any changes to the dimensions of the arrays in the main program, be sure to change the appropriate variables (MAXNODE, MAXTYPE, MAXUSER, MAXSTAT, MAXUSE1, and ISIZE3) to match the true dimensions.
3. Always make sure that the probability transition matrix used in the computations is well-defined.

With this modification to McKenzie's original program, we now have a new tool to model interactive computer systems which considers multi-class job-swapping behavior as a function of main memory size, the number of jobs competing for memory, and the job size. Chapter 5 presents the results of using the multi-class Chen swapping model and the classical swapping model on three hypothetical workload models.

Chapter 5

Analytical Modeling Results

This chapter contains the results of modeling the DECsystem-10 using the single-class and multi-class Chen swapping model on a realistic, though hypothetical interactive/batch workload configuration. The workload was modeled using three alternate approaches.

The first section discusses the three alternate approaches used to model the workload configuration. The next section describes the system configuration used to model the DECsystem-10. The third section presents the results of two model comparisons: Chen's swapping model versus the classical model and the multi-class versus the single-class Chen swapping model.

5.1 Modeling Interactive/Batch Workloads

When a CPE analyst is faced with the task of analyzing the performance of an interactive computer system containing

Analytical Modeling Results

batch jobs with an analytical model, he has the following alternatives

1. Characterize the interactive and batch job classes separately and use a multi-class queueing model.
2. Use a single class model and make one of following commonly used approximations
 - Create a single, average job class by aggregating the characteristics of the individual classes.
 - Assume the impact of batch jobs is minimal, and use a single class with the characteristics of the interactive jobs. This approach was used by Chen in his original work.

5.2 DECsystem-10 System Configuration Parameters

Because of the large number of system configuration parameters which can be varied within the models, an infinite variety of system configurations could be analyzed. A subset of them were arbitrarily fixed in order to compare modeling approaches. These configuration parameters can be divided into two types: hardware and workload.

5.2.1 Hardware Parameters

The hardware configuration parameter values were chosen to model as closely as possible the Avionics lab

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DECsystem-10 hardware configuration. These hardware parameters are given in Table 5-1. The hardware configuration includes two CPU's, six disk drives within the I/O subsystem and one swapping device.

Table 5-1 System Configuration Parameters

<u>Hardware Parameters</u>		
Number of Disks = 6		
Number of CPU's = 2		
Number of Swapping Devices = 1		
<u>Workload Parameters</u>		
	<u>Interactive</u>	<u>Batch</u>
Number of Jobs	30	10
Job Size (K)	5	10
CPU quantum (sec)	.0125	.015
Disk Access Probabilities	Equal	Equal
Disk Service Times (sec)	.075	.075
Long-term wait Service (sec)	8.0	1.0
Job Swap Time (sec)	.1	.2
T _{CPU} (sec)	.1	.5
N _{DIO}	4.0	5.0

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5.2.2 Workload Parameters

The workload configuration parameter values shown in Table 5-1 were selected to model typical interactive and batch jobs. These values are within the range of values used by Chen to assure their reasonableness.

Additional knowledge of the DECsystem-10 and of interactive and batch jobs in general were used to set the relationships between the magnitudes of the workload parameters. These are described below for each workload parameter.

Job Size The above job sizes are within the range of job sizes used by Chen. The interactive job size was chosen smaller than the batch jobs since this is true on the average. Interactive jobs include many editing, compiling, and other utility programs which have small memory requirements. Batch jobs, on the other hand, include the running of large application packages such as SPSS, SLAM, etc.

CPU Quantum This value corresponds to the jiffy described in Chapter 2. The maximum CPU quantum is one jiffy (.01667 seconds), disregarding overhead of the operating system. When overhead rates of 10-25% are included, the CPU quantum has the values of those above. Interactive jobs usually have more overhead, since they deal more with system utilities. Batch jobs usually are large, number-crunching applications, and utilize little overhead.

Disk Access Probabilities
Since no other information was available these probabilities were arbitrarily chosen to be equal for all disks and for all job

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classes to simplify the analysis.

Disk Service Times

These times were again arbitrarily chosen to be equal for all disks and for all job classes. The value of the service time is consistent with the times used by Chen.

Long-term Wait Service Time

The value chosen for the interactive job class represents the "think" time for the user (the time to make a response to the computer) as well as the other long-term wait service times common to both interactive and batch jobs, e.g. command wait or DAEMON wait described in Chapter 2. The value selected is consistent with the values used by Chen.

Since jobs in the batch job class do not have a "think" time, but do enter other long-term wait states common to both interactive and batch jobs, the batch job class was assigned a long-term wait service. No information was available to determine typical values for long-term wait service times for batch jobs. The batch long-term wait service time was chosen to be significantly less than the interactive long-term wait service time since the long-term wait states possible for batch jobs require considerably less time to satisfy, and are therefore, much faster than the "think" time of an interactive user.

Job Swap Time

The values selected are consistent with the values used by Chen. The swap time for the batch job class should be larger since there is more batch job memory to swap. The batch job swapping time was arbitrarily doubled to take this into account.

T_{CPU}

The values selected for the CPU time per interaction are consistent with the values used by Chen. The CPU time per interaction for interactive jobs is lower than the value for batch jobs because interactive jobs are generally less CPU-intensive than batch jobs.

N_{DIO}

The values selected for the number of disk

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I/O's per interaction are reasonable considering the values used by Chen. Since the number of disk I/O's per interaction for interactive jobs is lower than the number of disk I/O's per interaction for batch jobs, the natural conclusion to draw is that the batch jobs are more I/O-intensive than the interactive jobs (usually the opposite is true). A more insightful approach shows that the interactive jobs are the more I/O-intensive. Equation 3-1 gives the formula for the number of CPU quanta received per interaction, N_{CPU} . This formula and Equation 3-3 yield a value of 8 and $33 \frac{1}{3}$ for interactive and batch jobs, respectively. Now the values of N_{IO} are more meaningful. In the case of the interactive jobs, half of the CPU quanta were terminated due to disk I/O requests, while in the case of the batch jobs, only 15 percent of the CPU quanta were terminated due to disk I/O requests. Therefore in this workload configuration, the interactive jobs are the more I/O-intensive.

5.2.3 DECSys-10 Swapping Model

The multi-class Chen swapping model derived from the above system configuration is shown in Figure 5-1. Note that the probabilities and service times for the network are class dependent (r). Node 1 corresponds to the two CPU's; nodes 2 through 7 represent the I/O subsystem containing the 6 disk drives; node 8 models the swapping device; and node 9 represents the long-term wait service node.

The following are definitions of the important probabilities in the network

$P_{9|r}$ $P_{9|r}$ is the probability that the job in class

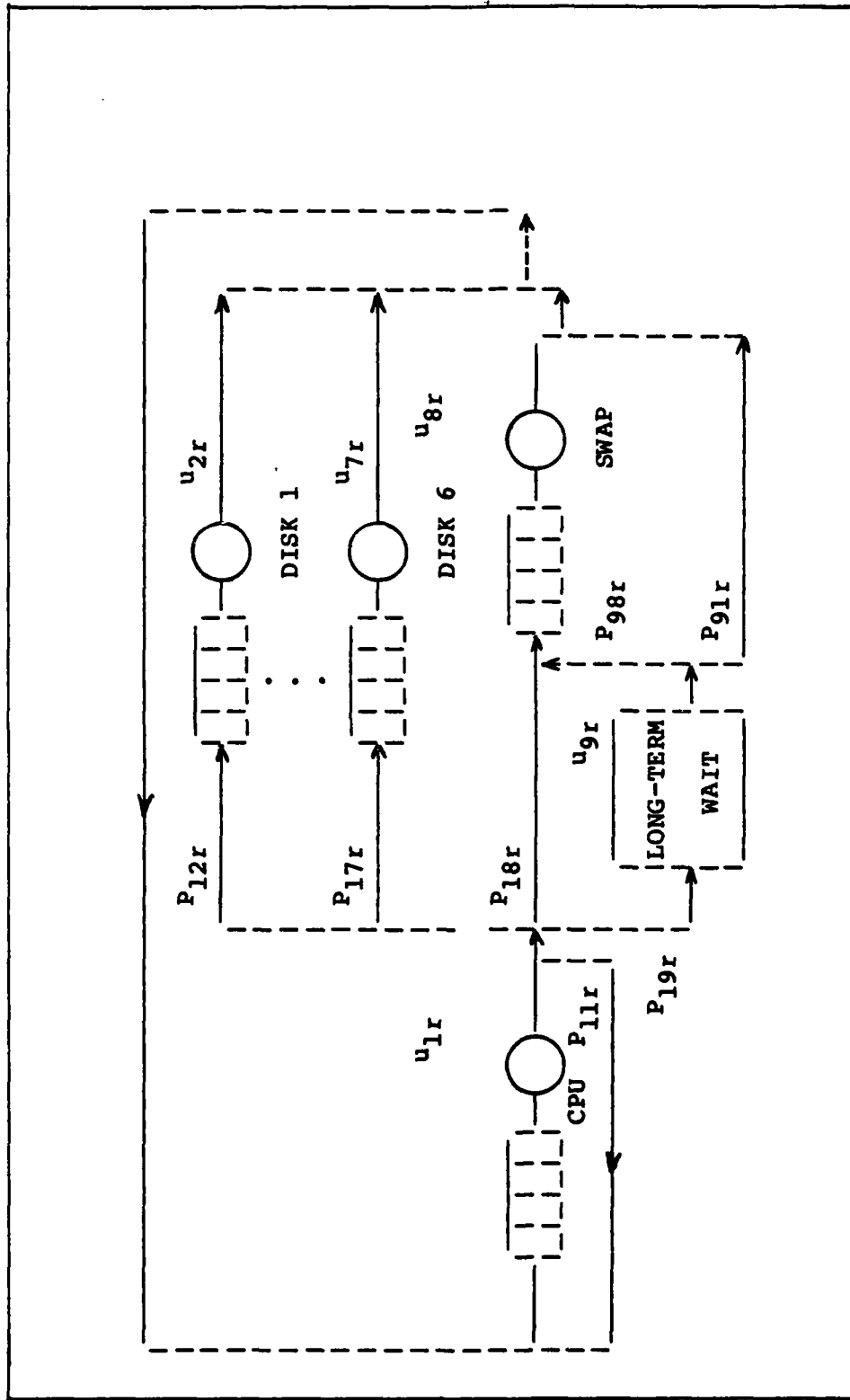


Figure 5-1 DECsystem-10 Swapping Model (For Class r)

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r leaving a long-term wait state (the "think" mode for interactive jobs) is already in memory and can proceed directly back to the CPU (analogous to P_{41} in Chen's original model).

P_{98r} P_{98r} is the probability that a job in class r leaving a long-term wait state (the "think" mode for interactive jobs) must be swapped into memory (analogous to P_{43} in Chen's model).

P_{18r} P_{18r} is the probability that a job in class r finishing its CPU quantum, must be swapped out to make room for another job which is ready to execute, but has been waiting for memory (analogous to P_{13} in Chen's model).

P_{1jr} P_{1jr} , for $j = 2, 3, \dots, 7$, are the probabilities of a job in class r going to the various disks in the I/O subsystem from the CPU (analogous to P_{12} in Chen's model).

5.3 Model Comparisons

5.3.1 Definition of Performance Measures

The following are definitions of the performance measures considered in these comparisons (Ref 29:10-12)

CPU utilization

The percent of time the CPU is processing a job.

Swapper utilization

The percent of time the swapping device is swapping in or out a job.

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Response Time Elapsed time between entering the last character of a request at a terminal and receiving the first character of the response.

5.3.2 Tabular Results

The results of the models are shown in Tables 5-2 through 5-4. Table 5-2 contains the performance measure results for the classical swapping model with the three workload cases. Table 5-3 contains the results for the Chen swapping model with the three workload cases. Table 5-4 shows the behavior of the probability transition matrix for different main memory

Table 5-2 Classical Swapping Model Results

<u>Performance Measures</u>			
Workload Cases	CPU Utilization (%)	Swapper Utilization (%)	Response Time (sec)
Two Class	100.00	33.46	6.750
Average	99.98	33.23	8.756
No Batch	81.05	26.97	3.122
<u>Important Probability Matrix Values</u>			
	P_{11r}	P_{18r}	P_{91r}
Two Class	.466/.933	0	0
Average	.699	0	0
No Batch	.466	0	0

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Table 5-3 Chen Swapping Model Performance Results

Memory (K)	Workload	CPU Utilization (%)	Swapper Utilization (%)	Response Time (sec)
240	Two Class	98.78	6.44	.828
	Average	70.95	4.00	1.083
	No Batch	-	-	-
200	Two Class	98.58	25.72	.847
	Average	70.80	16.00	1.107
	No Batch	-	-	-
150	Two Class	97.94	51.14	.895
	Average	70.51	32.00	1.154
	No Batch	-	-	-
100	Two Class	95.84	75.24	1.022
	Average	70.05	48.00	1.227
	No Batch	30.11	12.50	.504
50	Two Class	89.15	93.06	1.400
	Average	69.24	64.01	1.350
	No Batch	29.95	25.00	.557
40	Two Class	87.07	95.10	1.521
	Average	68.95	67.89	1.407
	No Batch	29.91	27.50	.570
30	Two Class	85.12	96.48	1.640
	Average	68.65	71.28	1.458
	No Batch	29.87	30.00	.583
20	Two Class	84.21	96.99	1.697
	Average	68.49	72.81	1.484
	No Batch	29.83	32.50	.598
10	Two Class	82.52	97.76	1.804
	Average	68.18	75.54	1.536
	No Batch	29.78	34.99	.613

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Table 5-4 Important Probability Matrix Values

Memory (K)	Workload	P _{11r}	P _{18r}	P _{91r}
240	Two Class	.374/.820	0	.934
	Average	.521	0	.941
	No Batch	-	-	-
200	Two Class	.374/.820	0	.735
	Average	.521	0	.764
	No Batch	-	-	-
150	Two Class	.374/.820	0	.468
	Average	.521	0	.526
	No Batch	-	-	-
100	Two Class	.374/.820	0	.188
	Average	.521	0	.282
	No Batch	.374	0	.641
50	Two Class	.359/.816	.015/.003	0
	Average	.521	0	.025
	No Batch	.374	0	.286
40	Two Class	.351/.814	.023/.005	0
	Average	.519	.002	0
	No Batch	.374	0	.214
30	Two Class	.344/.812	.030/.007	0
	Average	.515	.006	0
	No Batch	.374	0	.141
20	Two Class	.341/.811	.033/.008	0
	Average	.513	.008	0
	No Batch	.374	0	.068
10	Two Class	.335/.810	.039/.009	0
	Average	.510	.011	0
	No Batch	.374	.000	0

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sizes and workload cases. The Chen versus classical swapping model is discussed first to verify the Chen swapping algorithm results. Then a comparison between the two class model versus the single-class models is presented.

5.3.3 Chen's Versus the Classical Swapping Model

The following paragraphs consider the impact of using Chen's swapping model versus using the classical swapping model. The performance measures will be utilization of the CPU and the swapping device, and the response time received by the interactive users. The results shown are only for the two class model. Similar results were achieved with the average class model and the no batch model.

5.3.3.1 Probability Structure

The primary difference between the classical swapping model and Chen's swapping model is that Chen's probability transition matrix is dynamic, i.e. the probabilities in the matrix are dependent on the main memory size, the number of jobs competing for memory, and the job sizes.

The Figure 5-2 is a plot of the data in Table 5-4 for the two class workload model. It illustrates the dynamic

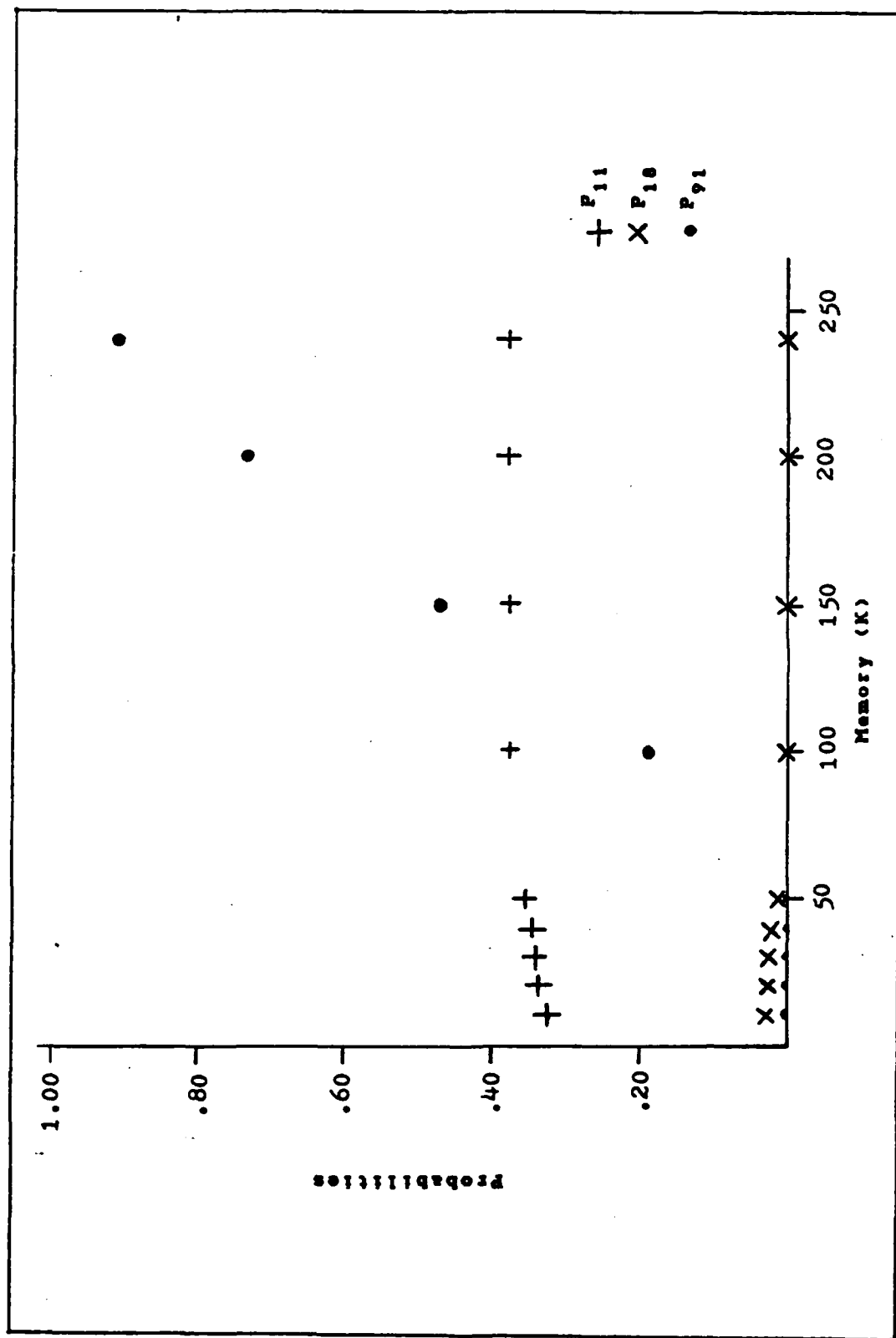


Figure 3-2 Probability Structure (Two Classes)

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relationship between the state-dependent probabilities and main memory size produced by the two class workload model. In the classical model P_{18r} and P_{91r} would be zero and P_{11r} would be constant. With Chen's model, the probabilities have some interesting properties

- P_{91r} behaves "classically" ($P_{91r}=0$) from zero to approximately 70K of main memory. At that point the Chen approximation takes effect and P_{91r} steadily increases to a probability of one at 250K of main memory.
- P_{11r} and P_{18r} behavior is reversed. For ranges of main memory between 70K and 250K, the probabilities behave "classically" ($P_{11r}=\text{constant}$, $P_{18r}=0$). Between 10K and approximately 70K of main memory, the Chen approximation takes effect. In this range, P_{11r} is inversely proportional to P_{18r} , i.e. P_{11r} 's gain is P_{18r} 's loss.

Similar phenomena occur in the average class model and the no batch model.

The rationale for the behavior of P_{91r} is as follows. For small amounts of main memory, all jobs in long-term wait will be swapped out to make room for other jobs waiting for memory. Hence, whenever a job gets blocked at the CPU and goes to a long-term wait state, it will be swapped out and must therefore always be swapped back in when it finishes its long-term wait service. For large amounts of main memory, there is enough memory to satisfy all memory demands as well as keep all jobs in in a long-term wait state in

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memory. As main memory size approaches 250K, an increasing number of jobs in a long-term wait state may stay in memory. Therefore, this increases the probability that a job leaving a long-term wait state will already be in main memory and need not be swapped in.

The rationale for the behavior of P_{11r} and P_{18r} is as follows. For large amounts of main memory, there is enough for all executable jobs to remain in memory. As main memory size gets smaller, a larger number of jobs in long-term wait are swapped out. This continues until all jobs in the long-term wait states swapped out. After all the inactive jobs have been swapped out, the Job Swapper must start swapping out jobs that are executable in order to make room for other jobs in the system. Therefore, jobs expiring their CPU quantum now have higher probabilities of being swapped out, instead of returning to the end of the CPU queue for more service (P_{18r} becomes larger).

5.3.3.2 Performance Predictions

The figures 5-3 a) through 5-3 c) are plots of the data contained in tables 5-2 and 5-3 for the two class model. The horizontal lines on each plot represent the values predicted by the classical model, while the data points

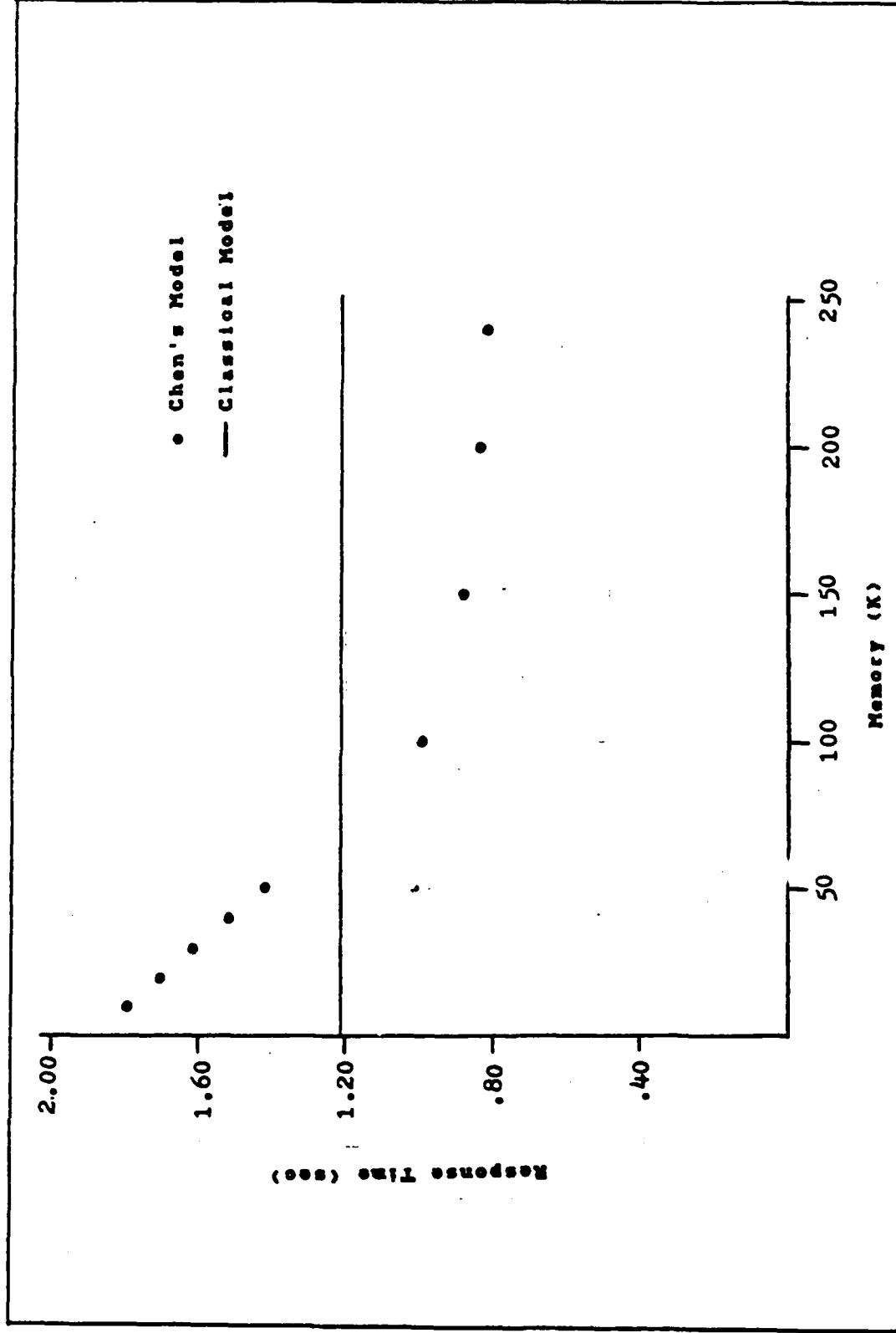


Figure 3-3 a) Two Classes

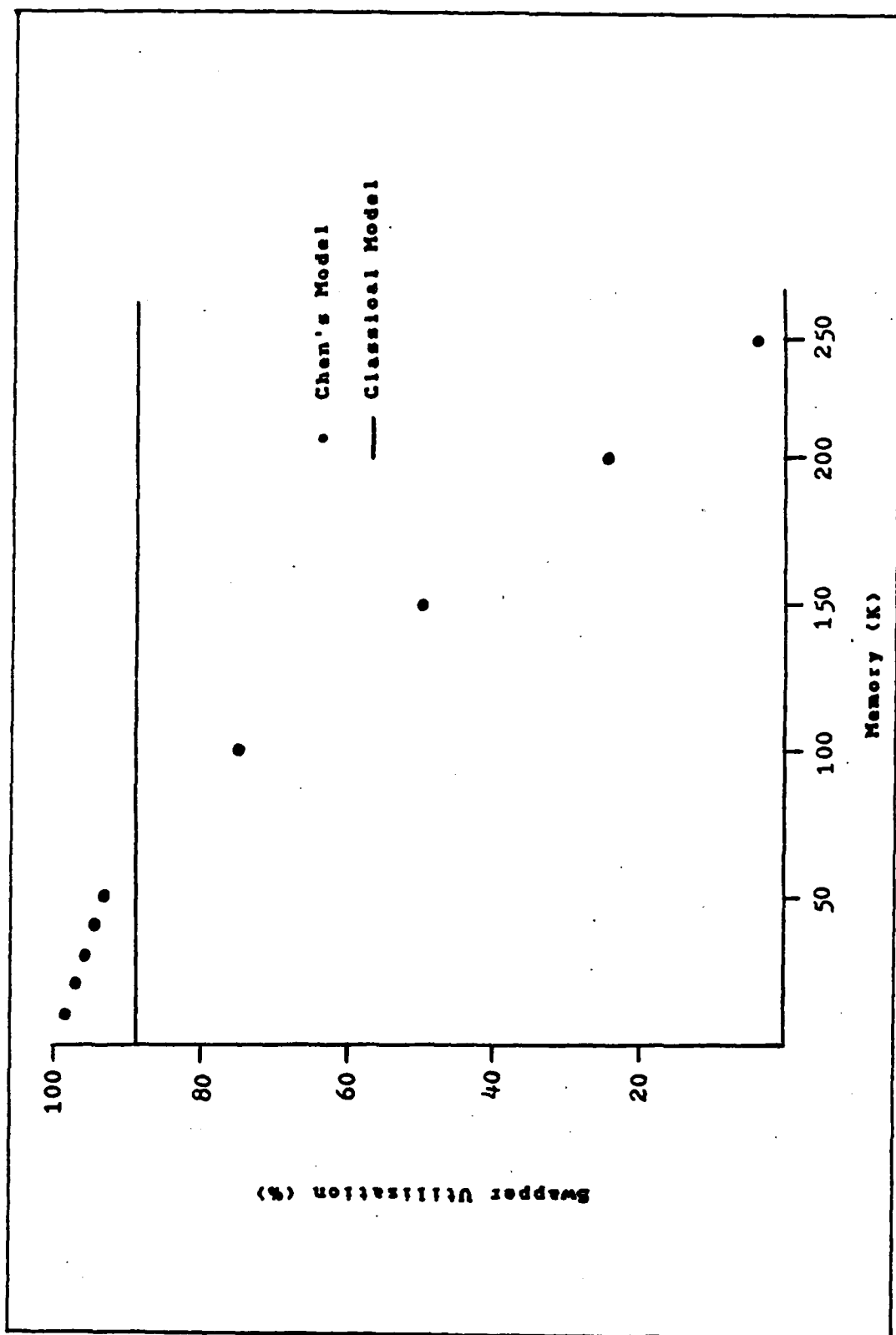


Figure 3-3 b) Two Classes

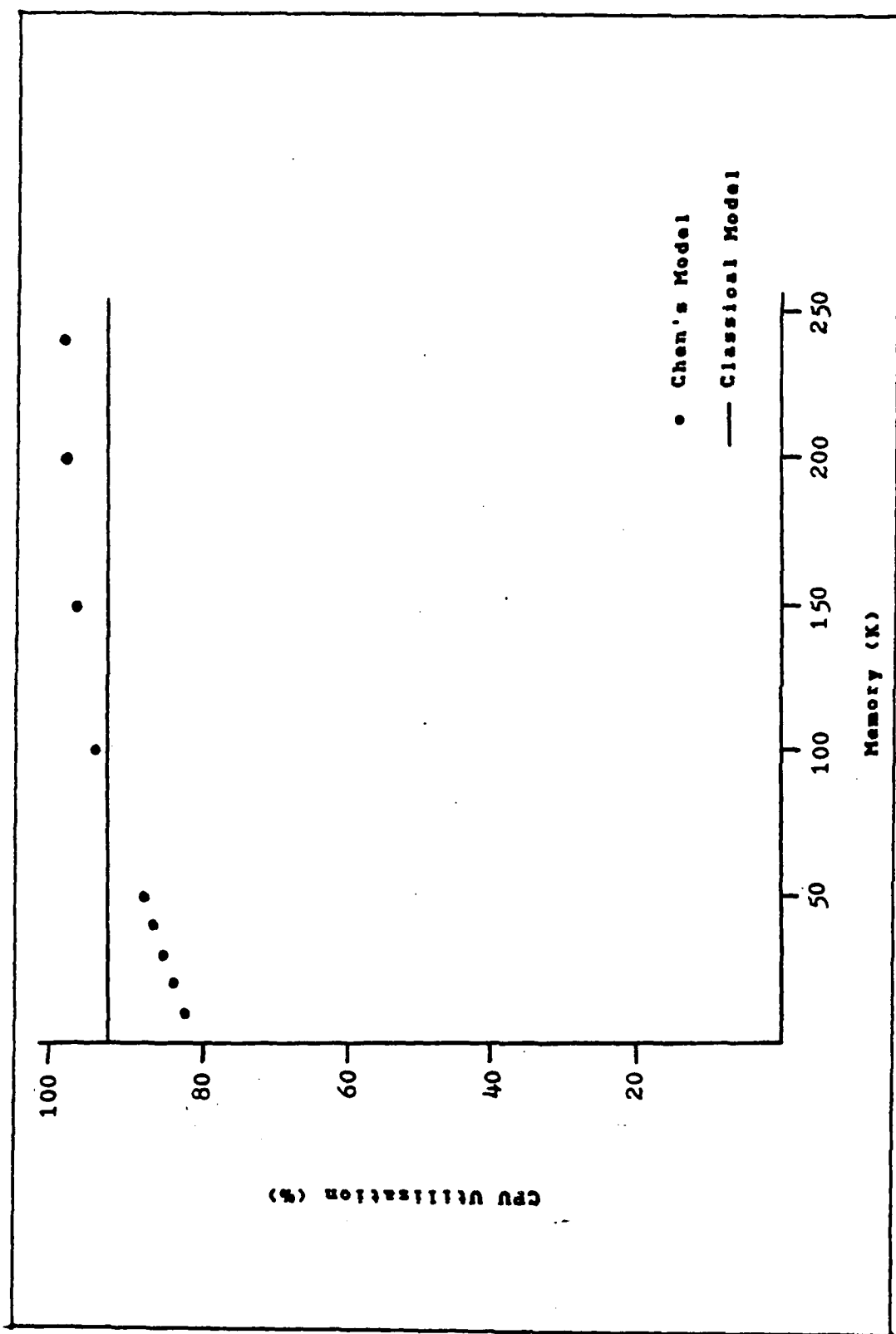


Figure 5-3 c) Two Classes

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represent the values predicted by the Chen model at each memory size. Note the sensitivity of the performance predictions due to the effects of main memory size in Chen's swapping model. Specifically, the following effects are modeled in the Chen swapping model

- In the range from zero main memory to the main memory size at the intersection of the Chen swapping model curve and the classical swapping model curve (approximately 70K for the two class model), the Chen model includes the effect of swapping out executable jobs on the performance measures (P_{10}). Compared to the classical swapping model, the Chen swapping model shows
 - * Increased response time and swapping utilization caused by increased swapping activity.
 - * Decreased CPU utilization caused by less jobs in memory competing for service from the CPU's.
- For the range of memory values between the point of intersection and enough memory to contain all jobs (250K for the two class model), the Chen model includes the effect of gradually having to swap in and out fewer jobs in long-term wait as opposed to the classical assumption that jobs in long-term wait are always swapped in. Compared to the classical swapping model, the Chen swapping model shows
 - * Decreased response time and swapping utilization caused by decreased swapping of the jobs in a long-term wait state.
 - * Increased CPU utilization caused by more jobs in memory competing for service from the CPU's.

5.3.4 Chen's Swapping Model: Multi-class Versus Single-class

The following paragraphs compare the results of the two class model to the average class and no batch class workload

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models when using Chen's swapping model. The performance measures considered will be the same as those used in comparing Chen's swapping model versus the classical swapping model: utilization of the CPU and the swapping device, and the response time received by the interactive users.

The figures 5-4 a) through 5-4 c) are plots of the data contained in Table 5-3 for the two class, average class, and no batch workload models. These plots reveal the wide disparity between the results obtained from a single class approximation when actually two classes of jobs exist. In particular, one can note the following results

- The no batch workload model seriously underestimates the response time of interactive jobs. For the average workload model, the response time is overestimated for main memory sizes which allow all active jobs to reside in memory. For main memory sizes below this value, response times are underestimated.
- The single-class workload models underestimate the CPU and swapper utilizations. This is especially true for the no batch workload model. As main memory sizes increases, the average workload model approaches the two class model.
- For all performance measures considered, the average workload model was closer to the two class workload model than the no batch workload model.

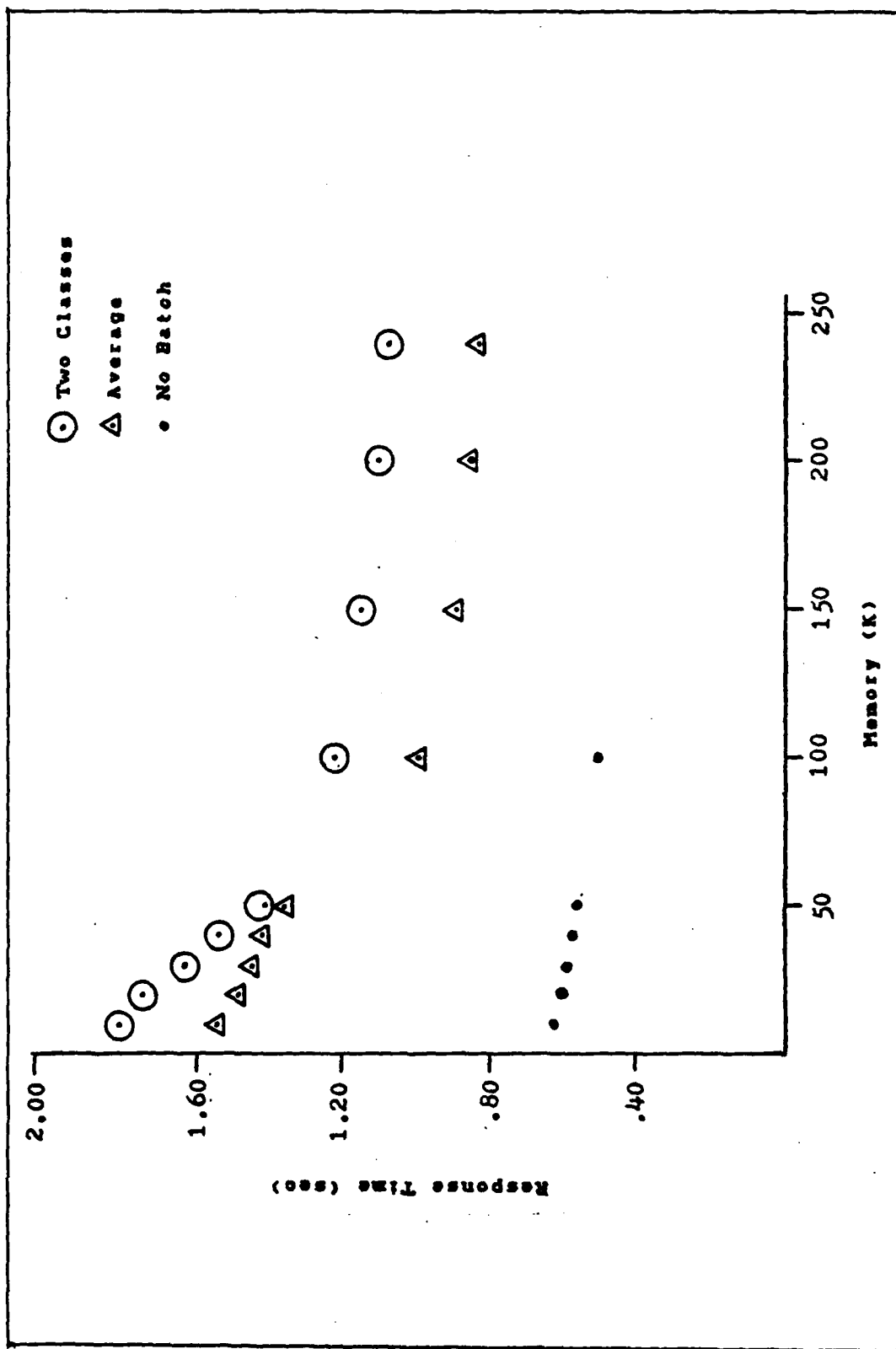


Figure 5-4 a) Chen's Model

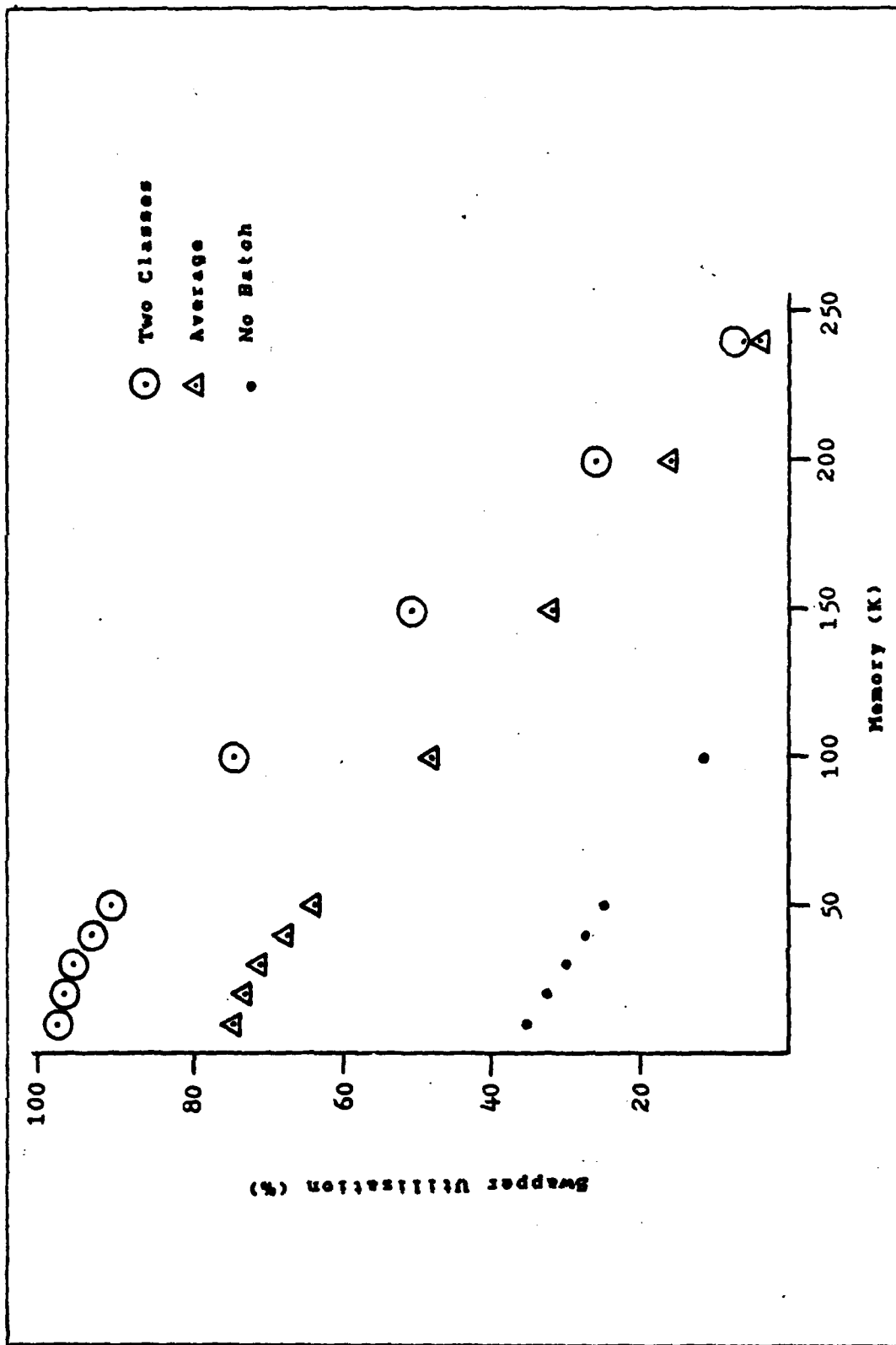


Figure 3-4 b) Chen's Model

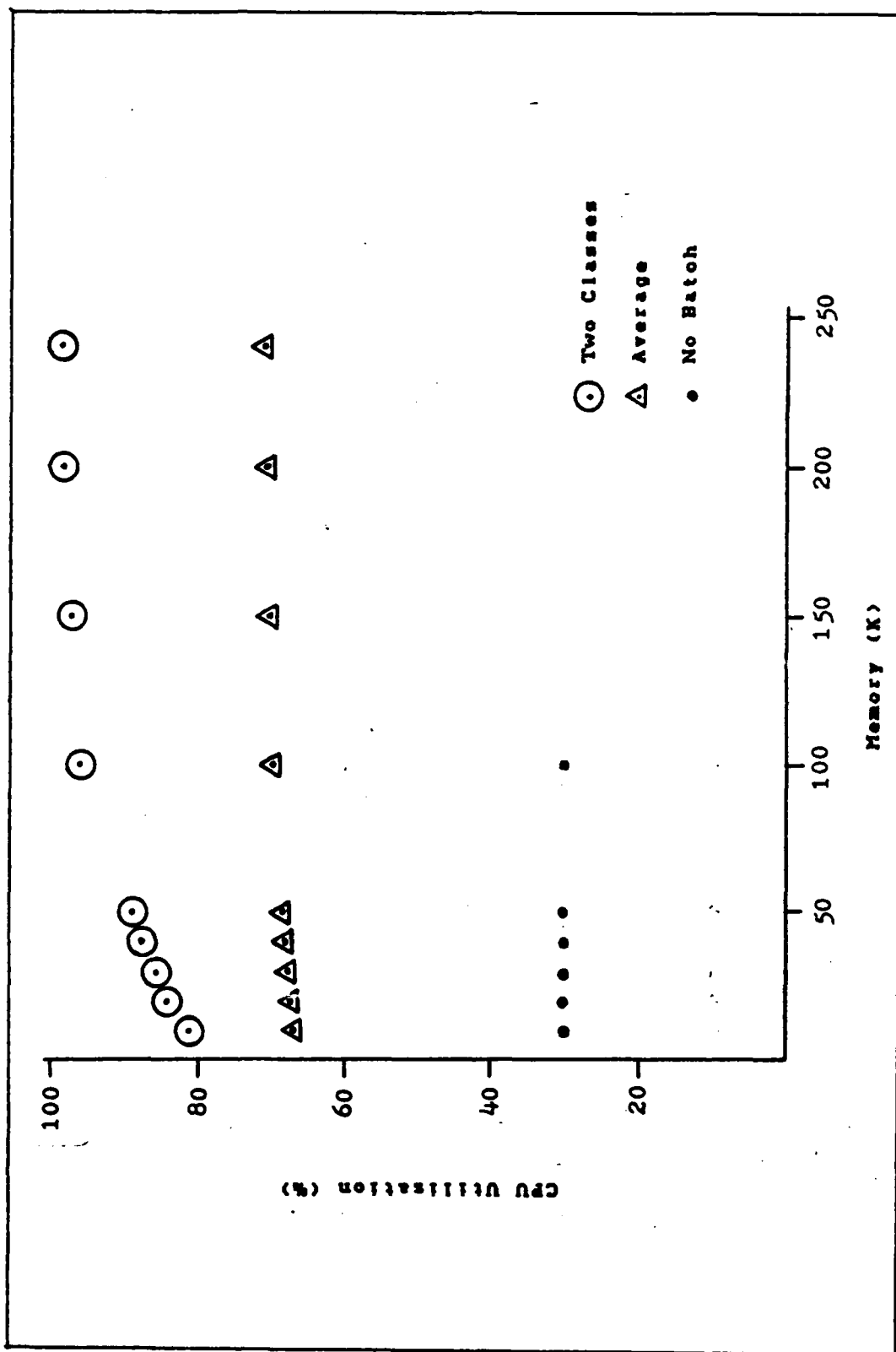


Figure 5-4 o) Chen's Model

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5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the results of modeling a computer system using the Chen model extended to multi-class models for three different workload cases: two class, average class, and no batch. The hardware and workload configuration parameters were chosen to as closely model the Avionics Lab system configuration as possible and to remain consistent with the workloads considered by Chen.

The results of the comparison between the Chen swapping model and the classical swapping model are summarized below

- For small amounts of main memory
 - * Longer response time and higher swapping utilization caused by increased swapping activity.
 - * Lower CPU utilization caused by more jobs waiting for swapping service and less jobs in memory competing for CPU service.
- For larger amounts of main memory
 - * Shorter response time and lower swapping utilization caused by decreased swapping of the jobs in a long-term wait state.
 - * Higher CPU utilization caused by less jobs waiting for swapping service and more jobs in memory competing for CPU service.

The following results were obtained from the comparisons of the two class workload model versus the

Analytical Modeling Results

single class workload models (average class and no batch class)

- The no batch workload model seriously underestimates the response time of interactive jobs for all memory sizes, while the average workload model overestimates response times for large main memory sizes and underestimates response times for small main memory sizes.
- The single-class workload models underestimate the CPU and swapper utilizations.
- For all performance measures considered, the average workload model was closer to the two class workload model than the no batch workload model.

Chapter 6

Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Conclusions

From the results obtained in Chapter 5 for the workload described, the following conclusions can be made

1. Chen's swapping model is a more realistic model of a computer system than the classical swapping model due to the fact that Chen's model more accurately models the effects of the scarcity of main memory on job-swapping behavior.
2. Adding the batch class to Chen's swapping model improves the accuracy of the performance measure predictions when the system contains significant batch activity.

Conclusions and Recommendations

6.2 Recommendations for Future Research

The following are topics of studies which could be conducted as an extension of this thesis

1. The current model of the DECsystem-10 shown in Figure 5-1 is a highly abstract model that does not consider many of the complexities of the TOPS-10 monitor or the hardware configuration. As an extension to the model, the following future thesis efforts could be conducted
 - Modeling the CPU's in the DECsystem-10 as a single processor-sharing node may oversimplify the complex nature of the HPQ's, PQ1, and PQ2 processor queues. Including multiple queues with job class priorities may provide a more accurate model of the overall system behavior. These multiple queues and job class priorities may be implemented using the shortest elapsed time or shortest remaining processing time queueing disciplines (Ref 6:178-186).
 - Modeling the I/O subsystem by just modeling the disk drives may be overlooking long delays due to contention for the I/O channel. An approximation method described in reference 16 called the method of surrogate delays appears to be a prime candidate for inclusion to the present computer program to more accurately model I/O channel contention.
 - An important extension to the present model would be to determine how the numerous scheduling parameters within the DECsystem-10 affect the workload configuration parameters, service times, and the probability transition matrices in the model. This information would provide guidance to systems analysts in setting optimum values for the scheduling parameters.
2. Although the current model does provide reasonable results, the model has not been validated. To accomplish this validation, one of the following two approaches could be taken

Conclusions and Recommendations

- Take measurements on the actual system, and compare the measurement results to the results predicted by the model.
 - If measurements on the actual system are impossible, the development of an extremely detailed simulation model which takes into account most of the intricacies of the TOPS-10 monitor would be a step toward validation. This would not completely validate the analytical model since the simulation itself is not validated, but the modeling accuracy possible with a simulation should provide a more accurate, but time consuming model.
3. The impact of changes in the workload configuration using the current model would provide better insights as to how the performance measurements are affected by the workload configuration. Some of the most interesting variations might be changes in the
- Job Size
 - Number of batch jobs in the system
 - Number of competing jobs in the system, i.e. not in a long-term wait state
 - Number of CPU versus I/O intensive jobs.
4. Another type of workload variation entails increasing the number of job classes in the system. To model a large number of job classes (greater than 4) in the system will require a restructuring of the current program. The program currently computes the necessary probability distributions one node at a time, since the state space for the whole network would be too large to run on the CDC computer. With a larger number of job classes, the state space of a node becomes unmanageable. Therefore, the computations will have to be broken down even further, in order to fit in memory. If the program rewrite is undertaken, one of the two alternatives listed below should be chosen
- Rewrite the program in FORTRAN77 to take advantage of the language's increased structure and more importantly, to incorporate the random record reads and writes that are now part of the

Conclusions and Recommendations

language. This will eliminate the installation dependent implementation of random record processing and make the program more portable.

- Rewrite the program in PASCAL, PL/I or some other language that allows recursion. Since the computational algorithms are defined recursively, this may provide more efficient code and will definitely be a more straight forward implementation.

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Vita

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Appendix A

MULTI-CLASS CHEN MODEL PROGRAM LISTING

PROGRAM PERFORM(INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE5=INPUT,TAPE6=OUTPUT,TAPE3)	PERFORM 2
C	PERFORM 3
C	PERFORM 4
C	PERFORM 5
C	PERFORM 6
C	PERFORM 7
C	PERFORM 8
C	PERFORM 9
C	PERFORM 10
C	PERFORM 11
C	PERFORM 12
C	PERFORM 13
C	PERFORM 14
C	PERFORM 15
C	PERFORM 16
C	PERFORM 17
C	PERFORM 18
C	PERFORM 19
C	COXMOD 1
C	COXMOD 2
C	COXMOD 3
C	COXMOD 4
C	COXMOD 5
C	COXMOD 6
C	COXMOD 7
C	COXMOD 8
C	COXMOD 9
C	COXMOD 10
C	COXMOD 11
C	COXMOD 12
C	COXMOD 13
C	COXMOD 14
C	COXMOD 15
C	COXMOD 16
C	COXMOD 17
C	PERFORM 33
C	PERFORM 34
C	PERFORM 35
C	PERFORM 36
C	PERFORM 37
C	PERFORM 38
C	PERFORM 39
C	PERFORM 40
C	PERFORM 41
C	PERFORM 42
C	PERFORM 43
C	PERFORM 44
C	PERFORM 45
C	PERFORM 46
C	PERFORM 47

THE PROGRAM PERFORM IS A CLOSED QUEUEING NETWORK
 MODEL WHICH CAN BE USED IN PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF
 TIME-SHARING COMPUTER SYSTEMS. THE PROGRAM PERFORM IS
 BASED ON A CLOSED QUEUEING NETWORK MODEL DEVELOPED BY
 F. BASKETT, K. CHANDY, R. MUNTZ, AND F. PALACIOS.
 THEIR MODEL WAS PRESENTED IN THE ARTICLE "OPEN, CLOSED,
 AND MIXED NETWORK OF QUEUES WITH DIFFERENT CLASSES OF
 CUSTOMERS", WHICH APPEARED IN THE JOURNAL OF THE ACM,
 VOL. 22, NO. 2, PP. 249-260, APRIL, 1975.

THE COMPUTATIONAL ALGORITHMS WHICH ARE USED TO
 IMPLEMENT THE MODEL OF BASKETT, ET. AL. ARE BASED ON THE
 COMPUTATIONALLY EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS PRESENTED IN THE
 DISSERTATION OF J. MONG ENTITLED QUEUEING NETWORK MODELS
 FOR COMPUTER SYSTEMS, UCLA-ENG-7579, UNIVERSITY OF
 CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES, OCTOBER, 1975.

DIMENSION E(13,2), EXPVAL(13,2), DEPART(13,2), FNT(1000),
 1IFACTOR(41), INDEX3(40), ISKIP(2), ISTATE1(2), ISTATE2(2),
 2NODETYP(13), NORMOIN(1000,2), NUSERS(2), PROB(13,13),
 3PROBCUM(1000), PROBMAR(1000), PROBPAP(13,2,41),
 4PROBTOT(13,41), SERVICE(13,2), UTIL(13,2), WAREA(13),
 5X(13), IDEP(13), DEP(13,2,40), TCPU(2), DIO(2),
 6DISKPRB(13,2), SIZEJOB(2)

DOUBLE PRECISION IFACOR
 LOGICAL PRINTON
 INTEGER IUSERS, NAVGJOB
 REAL DELTA, TOLERAN, PEXPVAL, SIZEMEM, AVGJOBS
 MAXNODE = 13
 MAXUSER = 40
 MAXUSER1 = MAXUSER + 1
 MAXTYPE = 2
 MAXSTAT = 1000
 ISIZE3 = 40

MAXNODE — THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF NODES WHICH CAN BE
 REPRESENTED IN THE PROGRAM.

MAXUSER — THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF TOTAL USERS THAT CAN
 BE REPRESENTED IN THE PROGRAM.

MAXUSER1 — THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF TOTAL USERS THAT CAN
 BE REPRESENTED IN THE PROGRAM + 1.

MAXTYPE — THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF TYPES OF USERS THAT
 CAN BE REPRESENTED IN THE PROGRAM.

MAXSTAT — THE MAXIMUM STATE SPACE FOR EACH NODE.

C	ISIZE3 — THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF RANDOM RECORDS (30)	PERFORM 48
C	WHICH CAN BE WRITTEN ON TAPE3 + 1. ISIZE3 IS	PERFORM 49
C	CALCULATED BY MAXNODE * 3 + 1.	PERFORM 50
C		PERFORM 51
C	E(I,J) — THE MEAN ARRIVAL RATE OF TYPE J USERS AT	PERFORM 52
C	SERVICE CENTER I. THE DIMENSIONS OF E ARE	PERFORM 53
C	(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 54
C		PERFORM 55
C	EXPVAL(I,J) — THE EXPECTED NUMBER OF TYPE J USERS	PERFORM 56
C	AT NODE I AT EQUILIBRIUM. THE DIMENSIONS	PERFORM 57
C	OF EXPVAL ARE (MAXNODE, MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 58
C		PERFORM 59
C	DEPART(I,J) — THE DEPARTURE RATE OF TYPE J USERS FROM	PERFORM 60
C	NODE I AT EQUILIBRIUM. THE DIMENSIONS	PERFORM 61
C	OF DEPART ARE (MAXNODE, MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 62
C		PERFORM 63
C	FNT(I) — THE FUNCTION REPRESENTING THE RELATIVE	PERFORM 64
C	WEIGHTING OF STATE I IN THE CALCULATIONS OF	PERFORM 65
C	THE EQUILIBRIUM STATE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS.	PERFORM 66
C	THE DIMENSION OF FNT IS (MAXSTAT).	PERFORM 67
C		PERFORM 68
C	IFACTOR(I) — VALUE OF I FACTORIAL. DIMENSION OF	PERFORM 69
C	IFACTOR IS (MAXUSER1).	PERFORM 70
C		PERFORM 71
C	INDEX3(I) — THE LOCATION OF RECORD I ON THE RANDOM	PERFORM 72
C	FILE TAPE3. THE DIMENSION OF INDEX3 IS	PERFORM 73
C	(ISIZE3).	PERFORM 74
C		PERFORM 75
C	ISKIP — WORKING ARRAY USED TO SKIP OVER UNNEEDED	PERFORM 76
C	STATES IN THE STATE SPACE FOR A GIVEN NODE.	PERFORM 77
C	THE DIMENSION OF ISKIP IS (MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 78
C		PERFORM 79
C	ISTATE1 — WORKING ARRAY USED TO SPECIFY A STATE OF A	PERFORM 80
C	GIVEN NODE. THE DIMENSION OF ISTATE1 IS (MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 81
C		PERFORM 82
C	ISTATE2 — WORKING ARRAY USED TO SPECIFY A STATE OF A	PERFORM 83
C	GIVEN NODE. THE DIMENSION OF ISTATE2 IS	PERFORM 84
C	(MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 85
C		PERFORM 86
C	NODETYP(I) — SPECIFIES THE TYPE OF NODE I. THE	PERFORM 87
C	DIMENSION OF NODETYP IS (MAXNODE).	PERFORM 88
C		PERFORM 89
C	NORMCON — WORKING ARRAY USED TO CALCULATE THE NORMAL-	PERFORM 90
C	IZATION CONSTANT. THE DIMENSIONS OF NORMCON	PERFORM 91
C	ARE (MAXSTAT,2).	PERFORM 92
C		PERFORM 93
C	NUSERS(I) — NUMBER OF TYPE I USERS REPRESENTED IN THE	PERFORM 94
C	MODEL. THE DIMENSION OF NUSERS IS (MAXTYPE).	PERFORM 95
C		PERFORM 96
C	PROB(I,J) — THE PROBABILITY THAT A TASK OF A GIVEN TYPE	PERFORM 97
C	WILL PROCEED TO NODE I WHEN IT DEPARTS	PERFORM 98
C	NODE J. THE DIMENSIONS OF PROB ARE	PERFORM 99
C	(MAXNODE,MAXNODE).	PERFORM100

C		PERFORM101
C	PROBCUM(I) --- THE PROBABILITY THAT A SUBNETWORK OF	COXMOD 18
C	NODES IN THE NETWORK MODEL IS IN A GIVEN	COXMOD 19
C	STATE. THE STATES IN THE STATE SPACE ARE	COXMOD 20
C	INDEXED BY THE SUBSCRIPT I. THE DIMENSION	COXMOD 21
C	OF PROBCUM IS (MAXSTAT).	COXMOD 22
C	PROBMAR(I) --- THE PROBABILITY THAT A SINGLE NODE IN	PERFORM108
C	THE NETWORK MODEL IS IN A GIVEN STATE.	PERFORM109
C	THE STATES IN THE STATE SPACE ARE INDEXED	PERFORM110
C	BY THE SUBSCRIPT I. THE DIMENSION OF	PERFORM111
C	PROBMAR IS (MAXSTAT).	PERFORM112
C		PERFORM113
C	PROBPAR(I,J,K) --- THE PROBABILITY THAT THERE ARE K	PERFORM114
C	USERS OF TYPE J AT NODE I. THE	PERFORM115
C	DIMENSIONS OF PROBPAR ARE (MAXNODE,	PERFORM116
C	MAXTYPE,MAXUSE1).	PERFORM117
C		PERFORM118
C	PROBTOT(I,J) --- THE PROBABILITY THAT THERE ARE J USERS	PERFORM119
C	AT NODE I. THE DIMENSIONS OF PROBTOT	PERFORM120
C	ARE (MAXNODE,MAXTYPE).	PERFORM121
C		PERFORM122
C	SERVICE(I,J) --- THE SERVICE TIME OF A TYPE J USER AT	PERFORM123
C	NODE I. THE DIMENSIONS OF SERVICE	PERFORM124
C	ARE (MAXNODE,MAXTYPE).	PERFORM125
C		PERFORM126
C	UTIL(I,J) --- THE UTILIZATION OF NODE I BY USERS OF TYPE	PERFORM127
C	J. THE DIMENSIONS OF UTIL ARE (MAXNODE,	PERFORM128
C	MAXTYPE).	PERFORM129
C		PERFORM130
C	WAREA --- WORKING ARRAY USED TO CALCULATE THE MEAN ARRIVAL	PERFORM131
C	RATE OF USERS AT THE NODES IN THE NETWORK.	PERFORM132
C	THE DIMENSION OF WAREA IS (MAXNODE).	PERFORM133
C		PERFORM134
C	X --- WORKING ARRAY USED TO CALCULATE THE MEAN ARRIVAL	PERFORM135
C	RATE OF USERS AT THE NODES IN THE NETWORK.	PERFORM136
C	DIMENSION OF X IS (MAXNODE).	PERFORM137
C		PERFORM138
C	IDEP(I) --- INDICATES STATE DEPENDENT SERVICE	PERFORM139
C	RATES AT NODE I.	PERFORM140
C	1 --- NO STATE DEPENDENT SERVICE RATES	PERFORM141
C	2 --- SERVICE RATES DEPENDENT ON THE TOTAL	PERFORM142
C	NUMBER OF USERS AT THE NODE.	PERFORM143
C	3 --- SERVICE RATES DEPENDENT ON THE NUMBER	PERFORM144
C	OF USERS OF A TYPE AT THE NODE.	PERFORM145
C	THE DIMENSION OF IDEP IS (MAXNODE).	PERFORM146
C		PERFORM147
C	DEP(I,J,K) --- THE RELATIVE SERVICE RATE OF TYPE J USERS	PERFORM148
C	AT NODE I WHEN THERE ARE K USERS PRESENT	PERFORM149
C	AT NODE I. THE DIMENSIONS OF DEP ARE	PERFORM150
C	(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,MAXUSER).	PERFORM151
C	WRITE(6,1)	PERFORM152
1	FORMAT(1H1,9X,"THIS IS A CLOSED QUEUEING NETWORK MODEL ",	PERFORM153
	1" FOR TIME-SHARING COMPUTER SYSTEMS.")	PERFORM154

C		PERFORM155
C	OPEN THE MASS STORAGE FILE	PERFORM156
C		PERFORM157
	CALL OPENMS(3,INDEX3,ISIZE3,0)	PERFORM158
C		PERFORM159
C	CALL INPUT TO INPUT THE DATA NECESSARY TO EXECUTE THE	PERFORM160
C	PROGRAM	PERFORM161
C		PERFORM162
	CALL INDATA(PROB,SERVICE,E,NODETYP,NUSERS,MAXNODE,	PERFORM163
	1MAXUSER,MAXTYPE,MAXSTAT,NODES,IUSERS,ITYPES,X,INDEX3,ISIZE3,	COXMOD 23
	2WAREA,ISTATES,IDEP,DEP,EXPVAL,NDISKS,MAXITER,TOLERAN,	COXMOD 24
	3DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,SIZEJOB,AVGJOBS,NAVJOB),RETURNS(10)	COXMOD 25
	PRINTON = .TRUE.	COXMOD 26
	PEXPVAL = 0.0	COXMOD 27
	NITER = 0	COXMOD 28
	DO 4 J=1,ITYPES	COXMOD 29
	DO 4 I=1,NODES	COXMOD 30
	IF (J.NE. 1) GO TO 2	COXMOD 31
	EXPVAL(I,J) = IUSERS/NODES	COXMOD 32
	GO TO 4	COXMOD 33
2	EXPVAL(I,J) = 0.0	COXMOD 34
4	CONTINUE	COXMOD 35
C		COXMOD 36
C	CALL CHEN75 TO COMPUTE PROBABILITY TRANSITION MATRIX PROB	COXMOD 37
C		COXMOD 38
5	CALL CHEN75(PROB,NDISKS,DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,NAVJOB,	COXMOD 39
	1EXPVAL,SERVICE,DELTA,PEXPVAL,IUSERS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,	COXMOD 40
	2ITYPES,NODES,NITER,E,X,WAREA)	COXMOD 41
C		COXMOD 42
C	CALL FUNCT TO CALCULATE THE FUNCTIONS FNT FOR ALL NODES.	PERFORM167
C		PERFORM168
	CALL FUNCT(E,SERVICE,IFACTOR,ISTATE1,FNT,NUSERS,NODETYP,	PERFORM169
	1NODES,IUSERS,ITYPES,MAXNODE,MAXUSER,MAXUSE1,MAXTYPE,	PERFORM170
	2MAXSTAT,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES,IDEP,DEP),RETURNS(10)	PERFORM171
C		PERFORM172
C	CALL NORMAL TO CALCULATE THE NORMALIZATION CONSTANT.	PERFORM173
C		PERFORM174
	CALL NORMAL(FNT,NORMCON,NUSERS,ISTATE1,ISTATE2,ISKIP,	PERFORM175
	1MAXNODE,MAXSTAT,NODES,ITYPES,MAXTYPE,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES)	PERFORM176
C		PERFORM177
C	CALL MARGIN TO CALCULATE THE MARGINAL PROBABILITY	PERFORM178
C	DISTRIBUTION FOR THE STATE OF THE NODES.	PERFORM179
C		PERFORM180
	CALL MARGIN(FNT,NORMCON,PROBMAR,PROBCUM,NUSERS,ISTATE1,ISTATE2,	PERFORM181
	1ISKIP,MAXNODE,MAXSTAT,MAXTYPE,NODES,ITYPES,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES)	PERFORM182
C		PERFORM183
C	CALL EXPECT TO CALCULATE VARIOUS PERFORMANCE MEASURES.	PERFORM184
C		PERFORM185
	CALL EXPECT(PROBMAR,PROBTOT,PROBPAP,NUSERS,ISTATE1,	PERFORM186
	1NODETYP,EXPVAL,DEPART,UTIL,SERVICE,E,MAXNODE,	PERFORM187
	2MAXUSE1,MAXTYPE,NODES,ITYPES,IUSERS,MAXSTAT,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES,	PERFORM188
	3IDEP,DEP,MAXUSER,PRINTON,NITER)	COXMOD 43
	DO 7 L = 1, NODES	COXMOD 44

DO 7 M = 2, I TYPES	COXMOD 45
EXPVAL(L,1) = EXPVAL(L,1) + EXPVAL(L,M)	COXMOD 46
7 CONTINUE	COXMOD 47
DELTA = ABS(PEXPVAL-EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1))	COXMOD 48
PEXPVAL = EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1)	COXMOD 49
NITER = NITER + 1	COXMOD 50
PRINTON = .FALSE.	COXMOD 51
WRITE(6,1210) DELTA	COXMOD 52
1210 FORMAT(////10X,"DELTA = ",F10.5)	COXMOD 53
IF ((NITER .LT. MAXITER) .AND. (DELTA .GT. TOLERAN)) GO TO 5	COXMOD 54
PRINTON = .TRUE.	COXMOD 55
CALL EXPECT(PROBPAR,PROBTOT,PROBPAR,MUSERS,ISTATE1,	COXMOD 56
1 NODETYP,EXPVAL,DEPART,UTIL,SERVICE,E,MAXNODE,	COXMOD 57
2 MAXUSE1,MAXTYPE,NODES, I TYPES, IUSERS,MAXSTAT, INDEX3, ISIZE3, ISTATES,	COXMOD 58
3 IDEP,DEP,MAXUSER,PRINTON,NITER)	COXMOD 59
GO TO 20	COXMOD 60
10 WRITE(6,15)	PERFORM191
15 FORMAT(//10X,"ERRORS HAVE OCCURRED IN THE INPUT DESCRIPTION.",	PERFORM192
1//2X,"CHECK YOUR INPUT DATA FOR CORRECTNESS.")	PERFORM193
20 CONTINUE	PERFORM194
C	PERFORM195
C CLOSE THE MASS STORAGE FILE.	PERFORM196
C	PERFORM197
CALL CLOSMS(3)	PERFORM198
STOP	PERFORM199
END	PERFORM200
SUBROUTINE INDATA(PROB,SERVICE,E,NODETYP,MUSERS,MAXNODE,	INDATA 2
1 MAXUSER,MAXTYPE,MAXSTAT,NODES,IUSERS, I TYPES,X, INDEX3, ISIZE3,	INDATA 3
2 WAREA, ISTATES, IDEP,DEP,EXPVAL,NDISKS,MAXITER,TOLERAN,	COXMOD 61
3 DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,SIZEJOB,AVGJOBS,NAVGJOB),RETURNS(ERROR)	COXMOD 62
DIMENSION PROB(MAXNODE,MAXNODE), SERVICE(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	INDATA 5
1E(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE), NODETYP(MAXNODE), MUSERS(MAXTYPE),	INDATA 6
2X(MAXNODE), WAREA(MAXNODE), INDEX3(ISIZE3), IDEP(MAXNODE),	INDATA 7
3DEP(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,MAXUSER),EXPVAL(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 63
4DISKPRB(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),TCPU(MAXTYPE),DIO(MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 64
5SIZEJOB(MAXTYPE)	COXMOD 65
C	INDATA 9
C SUBROUTINE INPUT READS THE DATA NECESSARY TO RUN THE	INDATA 10
C PROGRAM. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TIME-SHARING COMPUTER	INDATA 11
C SYSTEM BEING MODELED ARE INPUT IN THIS ROUTINE.	INDATA 12
C	INDATA 13
WRITE(6,1)	INDATA 14
1 FORMAT(////10X,"****THE INPUT TO THE MODEL FOLLOWS****")	INDATA 15
C	INDATA 16
C READ THE NUMBER OF NODES IN THE NETWORK AND THE NUMBER	INDATA 17
C OF TYPES OF TASKS.	INDATA 18
C	INDATA 19
READ(5,*) NODES, I TYPES	COXMOD 66
IF (EOF(5)) 1000,15	INDATA 22
15 CONTINUE	INDATA 23
IF ((NODES.GT. MAXNODE) .OR. (I TYPES .GT. MAXTYPE)) GO TO 1100	INDATA 24
WRITE(6,20) NODES, I TYPES	INDATA 25
20 FORMAT(//10X,"THE NUMBER OF NODES REPRESENTED IN THE MODEL = ",	INDATA 26

113//10X,"THE NUMBER OF TASK TYPES REPRESENTED IN THE ",	INDATA 27
2"MODEL = ",I3)	INDATA 28
READ(5,*) NDISKS,SIZEHEN,MAXITER,TOLERAN	COXMOD 67
WRITE(6,26) NDISKS, SIZEHEN	COXMOD 68
26 FORMAT(//10X,"THE NUMBER OF DISKS REPRESENTED IN THE MODEL = ",	COXMOD 69
113//10X,"THE SIZE OF MEMORY IN K BYTES = ",F10.5)	COXMOD 70
IF (EOF(5) .EQ. 1) GO TO 1000	COXMOD 71
WRITE(6,27) MAXITER, TOLERAN	COXMOD 72
27 FORMAT(//10X,"THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF ITERATIONS = ",I3//10X,	COXMOD 73
1"THE TOLERANCE FOR CONVERSION = ",F10.5)	COXMOD 74
IF (EOF(5) .EQ. 1) GO TO 1000	COXMOD 75
DO 29 I = 1, NDISKS	COXMOD 76
READ(5,*) (DISKPRB(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 77
IF (EOF(5) .EQ. 1) GO TO 1000	COXMOD 78
29 CONTINUE	COXMOD 79
WRITE(6,30)	COXMOD 80
30 FORMAT(//10X,"DISK #", I5X,"DISK ACCESS PROBABILITIES "	COXMOD 81
1"BY TASK TYPE")	COXMOD 82
DO 32 I = 1, NDISKS	COXMOD 83
WRITE(6,31) I,(DISKPRB(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 84
31 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,10(F10.5))	COXMOD 85
32 CONTINUE	COXMOD 86
READ(5,*) (NUSERS(J),TCPU(J),DIO(J),SIZEJOB(J), J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 87
IUSERS = 0	INDATA 33
ISTATES = 1	INDATA 34
WRITE(6,35)	INDATA 35
35 FORMAT(////10X,"THE DISTRIBUTION OF TASKS IN THE SYSTEM ",	COXMOD 88
1"BY TASK TYPE "///17X,"TASK TYPE",8X,"NUMBER OF TASKS",8X,	COXMOD 89
2"CPU TIME/INTERACTION",8X,"DISK IO'S/INTERACTION",8X,	COXMOD 90
3"JOB SIZE IN K BYTES"/)	COXMOD 91
DO 41 I = 1, ITPES	COXMOD 92
WRITE(6,40) I, NUSERS(I), TCPU(I), DIO(I), SIZEJOB(I)	COXMOD 93
40 FORMAT(/20X,I3,20X,I3,13X,F10.5,2(20X,F10.5))	COXMOD 94
IUSERS = IUSERS + NUSERS(I)	INDATA 41
ISTATES = ISTATES + (NUSERS(I) + 1)	INDATA 42
41 CONTINUE	COXMOD 95
WRITE(6,42) IUSERS	COXMOD 96
42 FORMAT(//17X,"TOTAL",21X,I3)	COXMOD 97
AVGJOBS = 0.0	COXMOD 98
DO 43 I = 1, ITPES	COXMOD 99
AVGJOBS = AVGJOBS + SIZEJOB(I) * NUSERS(I)	COXMOD 100
43 CONTINUE	COXMOD 101
AVGJOBS = AVGJOBS / IUSERS	COXMOD 102
NAVGJOB = SIZEHEN / AVGJOBS	COXMOD 103
WRITE(6,44) AVGJOBS,NAVGJOB	COXMOD 104
44 FORMAT(//10X,"AVERAGE JOB SIZE = ",F10.5//10X,	COXMOD 105
1"AVERAGE NUMBER OF JOBS IN MEMORY = ",I3)	COXMOD 106
IF((IUSERS .GT. MAXUSER) .OR. (ISTATES .GT. MAXSTAT)) GO TO 1200	INDATA 46
C	INDATA 47
C READ THE NODE CHARACTERISTICS.	INDATA 48
C	INDATA 49
WRITE(6,48) ITPES	INDATA 50
48 FORMAT(////10X,"NODE CHARACTERISTICS"//10X,"NODE",5X,"NODE",5X,	INDATA 51

1"SERVICE"/10X,"NAME",5X,"TYPE",7X,"RATE",6X,"NODE SERVICE RATES ",	INDATA 52
2"FOR TASK TYPES 1 THROUGH",I3)	INDATA 53
DO 65 I = 1, NODES	INDATA 54
READ(5,*) NODETYP(I), IDEP(I), (SERVICE(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 107
IF(EOF(5)) 1000,55	INDATA 57
55 CONTINUE	INDATA 58
IF (IDEP(I) .EQ. 2) READ(5,*) (DEP(I,1,J),J=1,MAXUSER)	COXMOD 108
IF (IDEP(I) .NE. 3) GO TO 59	INDATA 61
DO 58 J = 1, ITYPES	INDATA 62
READ(5,*) (DEP(I,J,K),K=1,MAXUSER)	COXMOD 109
58 CONTINUE	INDATA 64
59 CONTINUE	INDATA 65
WRITE(6,60) I, NODETYP(I), IDEP(I), (SERVICE(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	INDATA 66
60 FORMAT(/10X,I4,5X,I4,8X,I4,6X,8F10.5,10(/41X,6F10.5))	INDATA 67
65 CONTINUE	INDATA 68
RETURN	INDATA 122
1000 WRITE(6,1005)	INDATA 123
1005 FORMAT(/10X,"***UNEXPECTED END OF INPUT***")	INDATA 124
RETURN ERROR	INDATA 125
1100 WRITE(6,1105) MAXNODE, MAXTYPE, NODES, ITYPES	INDATA 126
1105 FORMAT(/10X,"MAXIMUM NODES = ",I3/,"MAXIMUM TASK TYPES = ",I3//,	INDATA 127
1"YOUR INPUTS ARE ",I3," AND ",I3," RESPECTIVELY.")	INDATA 128
RETURN ERROR	INDATA 129
1200 WRITE(6,1205) MAXUSER, MAXSTAT, IUSERS, ISTATES	INDATA 130
1205 FORMAT(/10X,"MAXIMUM NUMBER OF TASKS = ",I3//10X,	COXMOD 110
1"MAXIMUM NUMBER OF STATES = ",I5//10X,	COXMOD 111
2"YOUR INPUTS ARE ",I3," AND ",I5," RESPECTIVELY.")	COXMOD 112
RETURN ERROR	INDATA 133
END	INDATA 134
SUBROUTINE FUNCT(E,SERVICE,IFACTOR,ISTATE,FNT,NUSERS,NODETYP,	FUNCT 2
INODES,IUSERS,ITYPES,MAXNODE,MAXUSER,MAXUSE1,	FUNCT 3
2MAXTYPE,MAXSTAT,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES,IDEP,DEP),RETURNS(ERROR)	FUNCT 4
DIMENSION E(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE), SERVICE(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	FUNCT 5
1IFACTOR(MAXUSE1), ISTATE(MAXTYPE), FNT(MAXSTAT),	FUNCT 6
2NUSERS(MAXTYPE), NODETYP(MAXNODE), INDEX3(ISIZE3),	FUNCT 7
3IDEP(MAXNODE), DEP(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,MAXUSER)	FUNCT 8
DOUBLE PRECISION IFACTOR	FUNCT 9
C	FUNCT 10
C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE VALUES FOR THE FUNCTIONS	FUNCT 11
C WHICH ARE USED TO CALCULATE THE PROBABILITY THAT THE COMPUTER	FUNCT 12
C SYSTEM BEGIN MODELED IS IN A GIVEN STATE AT EQUILIBRIUM.	FUNCT 13
C	FUNCT 14
IFACTOR(1) = 1	FUNCT 15
DO 10 I = 1, MAXUSER	FUNCT 16
IFACTOR(I+1) = IFACTOR(I) * I	FUNCT 17
10 CONTINUE	FUNCT 18
DO 60 I = 1, NODES	FUNCT 19
INDEX = 1	FUNCT 20
DO 20 J = 1, ITYPES	FUNCT 21
ISTATE(J) = 0	FUNCT 22
20 CONTINUE	FUNCT 23
25 CONTINUE	FUNCT 24
NUMBER = 1	FUNCT 25

	DO 30 J = 1, I TYPES	FUNCT 26
	NUMBER = NUMBER + ISTATE(J)	FUNCT 27
30	CONTINUE	FUNCT 28
	J = 2	FUNCT 29
35	CONTINUE	FUNCT 30
	FVALUE1 = 1.	FUNCT 31
	FVALUE2 = 1.	FUNCT 32
	DO 38 K = 1, I TYPES	FUNCT 33
	L = ISTATE(K)	FUNCT 34
	FVALUE1 = FVALUE1 * ((E(I,K) * SERVICE(I,K))**L)	FUNCT 35
	FVALUE2 = FVALUE2 * IFACOR(L+1)	FUNCT 36
38	CONTINUE	FUNCT 37
	IF (NODETYP(I) .EQ. 3) FVALUE2 = 1. / FVALUE2	FUNCT 38
	IF (NODETYP(I) .NE. 3) FVALUE2 = IFACOR(NUMBER) / FVALUE2	FUNCT 39
	FNT(INDEX) = FVALUE1 * FVALUE2	FUNCT 40
	IF (IDEP(I) .NE. 2) GO TO 41	FUNCT 41
	NUM = NUMBER - 1	FUNCT 42
	IF (NUM .EQ. 0) GO TO 41	FUNCT 43
	FFF = 1.	FUNCT 44
	DO 40 K = 1, NUM	FUNCT 45
	FFF = FFF * DEP(1,1,K)	FUNCT 46
40	CONTINUE	FUNCT 47
	FNT(INDEX) = FNT(INDEX) / FFF	FUNCT 48
41	CONTINUE	FUNCT 49
	IF (IDEP(I) .NE. 3) GO TO 44	FUNCT 50
	FFF = 1.	FUNCT 51
	DO 43 K = 1, I TYPES	FUNCT 52
	IF (ISTATE(K) .EQ. 0) GO TO 43	FUNCT 53
	NUM = ISTATE(K)	FUNCT 54
	DO 42 KK = 1, NUM	FUNCT 55
	FFF = FFF * DEP(1,K,KK)	FUNCT 56
42	CONTINUE	FUNCT 57
43	CONTINUE	FUNCT 58
	FNT(INDEX) = FNT(INDEX) / FFF	FUNCT 59
44	CONTINUE	FUNCT 60
	INDEX = INDEX + 1	FUNCT 61
	NUMBER = NUMBER + 1	FUNCT 62
	ISTATE(1) = ISTATE(1) + 1	FUNCT 63
	IF (ISTATE(1) .LE. NUSERS(1)) GO TO 35	FUNCT 64
45	CONTINUE	FUNCT 65
	ISTATE(J) = ISTATE(J) + 1	FUNCT 66
	IF (ISTATE(J) .GT. NUSERS(J)) GO TO 55	FUNCT 67
	K = J - 1	FUNCT 68
	DO 50 L = 1, K	FUNCT 69
	ISTATE(L) = 0	FUNCT 70
50	CONTINUE	FUNCT 71
	GO TO 25	FUNCT 72
55	CONTINUE	FUNCT 73
	J = J + 1	FUNCT 74
	IF (J .LE. I TYPES) GO TO 45	FUNCT 75
C		FUNCT 76
C	THE FUNCTIONAL VALUES CALCULATED FOR ALL POSSIBLE STATES	FUNCT 77
C	OF EACH NODE ARE SAVED SO THAT THEY CAN BE USED TO CALCULATE	FUNCT 78

C	THE NORMALIZATION CONSTANT.	79
C		80
	CALL WRITMS(3,FNT(1),ISTATES,1)	81
60	CONTINUE	82
	RETURN	83
	END	84
		85
	SUBROUTINE NORMAL(FNT,NORMCON,NUSERS,ISTATE1,	2
	1ISTATE2,ISKIP,MAXNODE,MAXSTAT,NODES,ITYPES,	3
	2MAXTYPE,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES)	4
	DIMENSION FNT(MAXSTAT), NORMCON(MAXSTAT,2),	5
	1NUSERS(MAXTYPE), ISTATE1(MAXTYPE), ISTATE2(MAXTYPE),	6
	2ISKIP(MAXTYPE),INDEX3(ISIZE3)	7
	INTEGER FINDEX	8
	REAL NORMCON	9
C		10
C	THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE NORMALIZATION CONSTANT	11
C	FOR THE MODEL. THE NORMALIZATION CONSTANT ASSURES THAT THE	12
C	PROBABILITY OF THE SYSTEM BEING IN ALL STATES SUMS TO UNITY.	13
C		14
	CALL READMS(3,NORMCON(1,1),ISTATES,1)	15
	CALL WRITMS(3,NORMCON(1,1),ISTATES,MAXNODE+1)	16
	NORM1 = 1	17
	NORM2 = 2	18
	DO 110 I = 2, NODES	19
	CALL READMS(3,FNT(1),ISTATES,I)	20
	INDEX = 1	21
	DO 15 J = 1, ITPES	22
	ISTATE1(J) = 0	23
15	CONTINUE	24
20	CONTINUE	25
	K = 2	26
	DO 25 J = 1, ITPES	27
	ISTATE2(J) = 0	28
25	CONTINUE	29
	KK = 1	30
	FINDEX = 1	31
	LINDEX = INDEX	32
	ITEMP = 1	33
	DO 30 J = 1, ITPES	34
	ISKIP(J) = ITEMP * (NUSERS(J) - ISTATE1(J))	35
	ITEMP = ITEMP * (NUSERS(J) + 1)	36
30	CONTINUE	37
	ISKIP(1) = ISKIP(1) + 1	38
	FVALUE = 0.	39
40	CONTINUE	40
	FVALUE = FVALUE + NORMCON(FINDEX,NORM1) * FNT(LINDEX)	41
	IF (FINDEX .EQ. INDEX) GO TO 70	42
	ISTATE2(KK) = ISTATE2(KK) + 1	43
	IF (ISTATE2(KK) .GT. ISTATE1(KK)) GO TO 50	44
	FINDEX = FINDEX + 1	45
	LINDEX = LINDEX - 1	46
	GO TO 40	47

50	CONTINUE	NORMAL	48
	FINDEX = FINDEX + ISKIP(KK)	NORMAL	49
	LINDEX = LINDEX - ISKIP(KK)	NORMAL	50
	KK = KK + 1	NORMAL	51
	ISTATE2(KK) = ISTATE2(KK) + 1	NORMAL	52
	IF (ISTATE2(KK) .GT. ISTATE1(KK)) GO TO 50	NORMAL	53
	L = KK - 1	NORMAL	54
	DO 60 J = 1, L	NORMAL	55
	ISTATE2(J) = 0	NORMAL	56
60	CONTINUE	NORMAL	57
	KK = 1	NORMAL	58
	GO TO 40	NORMAL	59
70	CONTINUE	NORMAL	60
	NORMCON(INDEX,NORM2) = FVALUE	NORMAL	61
	INDEX = INDEX + 1	NORMAL	62
	ISTATE1(1) = ISTATE1(1) + 1	NORMAL	63
	IF (ISTATE1(1) .LE. NUSERS(1)) GO TO 20	NORMAL	64
80	CONTINUE	NORMAL	65
	ISTATE1(K) = ISTATE1(K) + 1	NORMAL	66
	IF (ISTATE1(K) .GT. NUSERS(K)) GO TO 100	NORMAL	67
	L = K - 1	NORMAL	68
	DO 90 J = 1, L	NORMAL	69
	ISTATE1(J) = 0	NORMAL	70
90	CONTINUE	NORMAL	71
	GO TO 20	NORMAL	72
100	CONTINUE	NORMAL	73
	K = K + 1	NORMAL	74
	IF (K .LE. ITYPES) GO TO 80	NORMAL	75
	CALL WRITHS(3,NORMCON(1,NORM2),ISTATES,MAXNODE+1)	NORMAL	76
	ITEMP = NORM1	NORMAL	77
	NORM1 = NORM2	NORMAL	78
	NORM2 = ITEMP	NORMAL	79
110	CONTINUE	NORMAL	80
	RETURN	NORMAL	81
	END	NORMAL	82
	SUBROUTINE MARGIN(FNT,CONNORM,PROBMAR,PROBCUM,	MARGIN	2
	1NUSERS,ISTATE1,ISTATE2,ISKIP,MAXNODE,MAXSTAT,	MARGIN	3
	2MAXTYPE,NODES,ITYPES,INDEX3,ISIZE3,ISTATES)	MARGIN	4
	DIMENSION FNT(MAXSTAT), CONNORM(MAXSTAT,2),	MARGIN	5
	1PROBMAR(MAXSTAT), PROBCUM(MAXSTAT),	MARGIN	6
	2NUSERS(MAXTYPE), ISTATE1(MAXTYPE), ISTATE2(MAXTYPE),	MARGIN	7
	3ISKIP(MAXTYPE), INDEX3(ISIZE3)	MARGIN	8
	INTEGER FINDEX	MARGIN	9
C		MARGIN	10
C	THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE PROBABILITY THAT A GIVEN	MARGIN	11
C	NODE IS IN A GIVEN STATE. THIS PROBABILITY IS CALCULATED	MARGIN	12
C	FOR ALL POSSIBLE STATES FOR EACH NODE.	MARGIN	13
C		MARGIN	14
	NORM1 = 1	MARGIN	15
	NORM2 = 2	MARGIN	16
	CALL READMS(3,CONNORM(1,NORM1),ISTATES,MAXNODE+NODES)	MARGIN	17
	CONSTAN = 1. / CONNORM(ISTATES,NORM1)	MARGIN	18
	FINDEX = 1	MARGIN	19

	LINDEX = ISTATES	MARGIN 20
	PPP = 0.	MARGIN 21
	CALL READMS(3,FNT(1),ISTATES,NODES)	MARGIN 22
	CALL READMS(3,CONNORM(1,NORM2),ISTATES,MAXNODE+NODES-1)	MARGIN 23
20	CONTINUE	MARGIN 24
	PROBVAR(FINDEX) = CONSTAN * CONNORM(LINDEX,NORM2) *	MARGIN 25
	1FNT(FINDEX)	MARGIN 26
	PROBCUM(FINDEX) = CONSTAN * CONNORM(FINDEX,NORM2) *	MARGIN 27
	1FNT(LINDEX)	MARGIN 28
	PPP = PPP + PROBVAR(FINDEX)	MARGIN 29
	FINDEX = FINDEX + 1	MARGIN 30
	LINDEX = LINDEX - 1	MARGIN 31
	IF (FINDEX .LE. ISTATES) GO TO 20	MARGIN 32
	IF (NODES .LE. 2) GO TO 150	MARGIN 33
	NCYCLES = NODES - 2	MARGIN 34
	CALL WRITHS(3,PROBVAR(1),ISTATES,MAXNODE*2+NODES)	MARGIN 35
	DO 140 I = 1, NCYCLES	MARGIN 36
	NSUB = NODES - I	MARGIN 37
	CALL READMS(3,FNT(1),ISTATES,NSUB)	MARGIN 38
	ITEMP = NORM1	MARGIN 39
	NORM1 = NORM2	MARGIN 40
	NORM2 = ITEMP	MARGIN 41
	CALL READMS(3,CONNORM(1,NORM2),ISTATES,MAXNODE+NSUB-1)	MARGIN 42
	INDEX = 1	MARGIN 43
	DO 30 J = 1, ITYPES	MARGIN 44
	ISTATE1(J) = 0	MARGIN 45
30	CONTINUE	MARGIN 46
	K = 2	MARGIN 47
	PPP = 0.	MARGIN 48
40	CONTINUE	MARGIN 49
	DO 50 J = 1, ITYPES	MARGIN 50
	ISTATE2(J) = ISTATE1(J)	MARGIN 51
50	CONTINUE	MARGIN 52
	FINDEX = 1	MARGIN 53
	LINDEX = INDEX	MARGIN 54
	KK = 1	MARGIN 55
	ITEMP = 1	MARGIN 56
	DO 60 J = 1, ITYPES	MARGIN 57
	ISKIP(J) = ITEMP * ISTATE1(J)	MARGIN 58
	ITEMP = ITEMP * (NUSERS(J) + 1)	MARGIN 59
60	CONTINUE	MARGIN 60
	ISKIP(1) = ISKIP(1) + 1	MARGIN 61
	FVALUE1 = 0.	MARGIN 62
	FVALUE2 = 0.	MARGIN 63
70	CONTINUE	MARGIN 64
	FVALUE1 = FVALUE1 + PROBCUM(LINDEX) *	MARGIN 65
	1((CONNORM(FINDEX,NORM2) * FNT(FINDEX)) /	MARGIN 66
	2CONNORM(LINDEX,NORM1))	MARGIN 67
	FVALUE2 = FVALUE2 + PROBCUM(LINDEX) *	MARGIN 68
	1((CONNORM(INDEX,NORM2) * FNT(FINDEX)) /	MARGIN 69
	2CONNORM(LINDEX,NORM1))	MARGIN 70
	IF (LINDEX .EQ. ISTATES) GO TO 100	MARGIN 71
	ISTATE2(KK) = ISTATE2(KK) + 1	MARGIN 72

IF (ISTATE2(KK) .GT. NUSERS(KK)) GO TO 80	MARGIN 73
FINDEX = FINDEX + 1	MARGIN 74
LINDEX = LINDEX + 1	MARGIN 75
GO TO 70	MARGIN 76
80 CONTINUE	MARGIN 77
FINDEX = FINDEX + ISKIP(KK)	MARGIN 78
LINDEX = LINDEX + ISKIP(KK)	MARGIN 79
KK = KK + 1	MARGIN 80
ISTATE2(KK) = ISTATE2(KK) + 1	MARGIN 81
IF (ISTATE2(KK) .GT. NUSERS(KK)) GO TO 80	MARGIN 82
L = KK - 1	MARGIN 83
DO 90 J = 1, L	MARGIN 84
ISTATE2(J) = ISTATE1(J)	MARGIN 85
90 CONTINUE	MARGIN 86
KK = 1	MARGIN 87
GO TO 70	MARGIN 88
100 CONTINUE	MARGIN 89
PROBVAR(INDEX) = FVALUE1	MARGIN 90
PPP = PPP + FVALUE1	MARGIN 91
PROBCUM(INDEX) = FVALUE2	MARGIN 92
INDEX = INDEX + 1	MARGIN 93
ISTATE1(1) = ISTATE1(1) + 1	MARGIN 94
IF (ISTATE1(1) .LE. NUSERS(1)) GO TO 40	MARGIN 95
110 CONTINUE	MARGIN 96
ISTATE1(K) = ISTATE1(K) + 1	MARGIN 97
IF (ISTATE1(K) .GT. NUSERS(K)) GO TO 130	MARGIN 98
L = K - 1	MARGIN 99
DO 120 J = 1, L	MARGIN 100
ISTATE1(J) = 0	MARGIN 101
120 CONTINUE	MARGIN 102
K = 2	MARGIN 103
GO TO 40	MARGIN 104
130 CONTINUE	MARGIN 105
K = K + 1	MARGIN 106
IF (K .LE. ITYPES) GO TO 110	MARGIN 107
CALL WRITHS(3,PROBVAR(1),ISTATES,MAXNODE*2+NSUB)	MARGIN 108
140 CONTINUE	MARGIN 109
150 CONTINUE	MARGIN 110
PPP = 0.	MARGIN 111
DO 160 I = 1, ISTATES	MARGIN 112
PPP = PPP + PROBCUM(I)	MARGIN 113
160 CONTINUE	MARGIN 114
CALL WRITHS(3,PROBCUM(1),ISTATES,MAXNODE*2+1)	MARGIN 115
RETURN	MARGIN 116
END	MARGIN 117
SUBROUTINE EXPECT(PROBVAR,PROBTOT,PROBPAR,NUSERS,ISTATE,	EXPECT 2
1NODETYP,EXPVAL,DEPART,UTIL,SERVICE,E,	EXPECT 3
2MAXNODE,MAXUSE1,MAXTYPE,NODES,ITYPES,IUSERS,MAXSTAT,INDEX3,	EXPECT 4
3ISIZE3,ISTATES,IDEP,DEP,MAXUSER,PRINTON,NITER)	COXMOD 113
DIMENSION PROBVAR(MAXSTAT),PROBTOT(MAXNODE,MAXUSE1),	EXPECT 6
1PROBPAR(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,MAXUSE1), NUSERS(MAXTYPE),	EXPECT 7
2ISTATE(MAXTYPE), NODETYP(MAXNODE), EXPVAL(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	EXPECT 8
3DEPART(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE), UTIL(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	EXPECT 9

4SERVICE(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE), INDEX3(1SIZE3), E(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	EXPECT 10
SIDEP(MAXNODE), DEP(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,MAXUSER)	EXPECT 11
LOGICAL PRINTON	COXMOD 114
C	EXPECT 12
C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES VARIOUS PERFORMANCE MEASURES	EXPECT 13
C FOR THE TIME-SHARING SYSTEM BEING MODELED. THESE MEASURES	EXPECT 14
C INCLUDE THE MARGINAL QUEUE LENGTH DISTRIBUTION FOR EACH TYPE	EXPECT 15
C OF USER AT EACH NODE, THE UTILIAZTION OF THE NODES BY EACH	EXPECT 16
C TYPE OF USER, AND THE RESPONSE TIME FOR EACH TYPE OF USER.	EXPECT 17
C	EXPECT 18
DO 10 I = 1, MAXNODE	COXMOD 115
DO 10 J = 1, MAXUSE1	COXMOD 116
PROBTOT(I,J) = 0.0	COXMOD 117
DO 10 K = 1, MAXTYPE	COXMOD 118
PROBPAR(I,K,J) = 0.0	COXMOD 119
UTIL(I,K) = 0.0	COXMOD 120
DEPART(I,K) = 0.0	COXMOD 121
10 CONTINUE	COXMOD 122
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,1)	COXMOD 123
1 FORMAT(1H1,////10X,"*****THE OUTPUT OF THE MODEL FOLLOWS*****")	COXMOD 124
DO 70 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 21
CALL READMS(3,PROBPAR(1),ISTATES,MAXNODE*2+1)	EXPECT 22
K = 1	EXPECT 23
INDEX = 0	EXPECT 24
NTOTAL = 0	EXPECT 25
DO 20 J = 1, I TYPES	EXPECT 26
ISTATE(J) = 1	EXPECT 27
20 CONTINUE	EXPECT 28
40 CONTINUE	EXPECT 29
NTOTAL = NTOTAL + 1	EXPECT 30
INDEX = INDEX + 1	EXPECT 31
PROB = PROBPAR(INDEX)	EXPECT 32
PROBTOT(I,NTOTAL) = PROBTOT(I,NTOTAL) + PROB	EXPECT 33
DO 50 J = 1, I TYPES	EXPECT 34
JJ = ISTATE(J)	EXPECT 35
PROBPAR(I,J,JJ) = PROBPAR(I,J,JJ) + PROB	EXPECT 36
IF (JJ .EQ. 1) GO TO 50	EXPECT 37
PARTIAL = PROB * (JJ - 1)	EXPECT 38
IF (NODETYP(I) .EQ. 3) GO TO 45	EXPECT 39
PARTIAL = PARTIAL / (NTOTAL - 1)	EXPECT 40
UTIL(I,J) = UTIL(I,J) + PARTIAL	EXPECT 41
45 CONTINUE	EXPECT 42
PARTIAL = PARTIAL * (1. / SERVICE(I,J))	EXPECT 43
DEPART(I,J) = DEPART(I,J) + PARTIAL	EXPECT 44
50 CONTINUE	EXPECT 45
IF (INDEX .EQ. ISTATES) GO TO 70	EXPECT 46
60 CONTINUE	EXPECT 47
ISTATE(K) = ISTATE(K) + 1	EXPECT 48
IF (ISTATE(K) .GT. NUSERS(K) + 1) GO TO 65	EXPECT 49
K = 1	EXPECT 50
GO TO 40	EXPECT 51
65 CONTINUE	EXPECT 52
ISTATE(K) = 1	EXPECT 53

NTOTAL = NTOTAL - NUSERS(K)	EXPECT 54
K = K + 1	EXPECT 55
IF (K .LE. ITYPES) GO TO 60	EXPECT 56
70 CONTINUE	EXPECT 57
IUSERS1 = IUSERS + 1	EXPECT 58
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,74) NODES	COXMOD 125
74 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MARGINAL QUEUE LENGTH PROBABILITIES ",	EXPECT 60
1"AT EQUILIBRIUM"////10X,"QUEUE LENGTH",5X,"QUEUE LENGTH ",	EXPECT 61
2"PROBABILITY FOR NODES 1 THROUGH ",I3)	EXPECT 62
DO 75 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 63
EXPVAL(I,1) = 0.	EXPECT 64
75 CONTINUE	EXPECT 65
DO 110 J = 1, IUSERS1	EXPECT 66
JJ = J - 1	EXPECT 67
DO 90 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 68
EXPVAL(I,1) = EXPVAL(I,1) + JJ * PROBTOT(I,J)	EXPECT 69
90 CONTINUE	EXPECT 70
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,80) JJ, (PROBTOT(I,J), I=1,NODES)	COXMOD 126
80 FORMAT(/14X,I3,7X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	EXPECT 72
110 CONTINUE	EXPECT 73
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,111)	COXMOD 127
111 FORMAT(////10X,"THE EXPECTED NUMBER OF TASKS AT EACH NODE"////10X,	EXPECT 75
1"NODE",10X,"EXPECTED VALUE")	EXPECT 76
DO 113 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 77
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,112) I, EXPVAL(I,1)	COXMOD 128
112 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,F10.5)	EXPECT 79
113 CONTINUE	EXPECT 80
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,114)	COXMOD 129
114 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MARGINAL QUEUE LENGTH PROBABILITIES ",	EXPECT 82
1"AT EQUILIBRIUM CLASSIFIED BY TASK TYPE")	EXPECT 83
DO 160 J = 1, ITYPES	EXPECT 84
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,115) J, NODES	COXMOD 130
115 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MARGINAL QUEUE LENGTH PROBABILITIES ",	EXPECT 86
1"AT EQUILIBRIUM FOR TASK TYPE",I3////10X,"QUEUE LENGTH",5X,	EXPECT 87
2"QUEUE LENGTH PROBABILITIES FOR NODES 1 THROUGH ",I3)	EXPECT 88
IUSERS1 = NUSERS(J) + 1	EXPECT 89
DO 116 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 90
EXPVAL(I,J) = 0.	EXPECT 91
116 CONTINUE	EXPECT 92
DO 150 K = 1, IUSERS1	EXPECT 93
KK = K - 1	EXPECT 94
DO 120 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 95
EXPVAL(I,J) = EXPVAL(I,J) + KK * PROBPAP(I,J,K)	EXPECT 96
120 CONTINUE	EXPECT 97
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,130) KK, (PROBPAP(I,J,K), I=1,NODES)	COXMOD 131
130 FORMAT(/14X,I3,6X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	EXPECT 99
150 CONTINUE	EXPECT 100
160 CONTINUE	EXPECT 101
WRITE(6,162) ITYPES	EXPECT 102
162 FORMAT(////10X,"THE EXPECTED NUMBER OF TASKS AT EACH NODE ",	EXPECT 103
1"CLASSIFIED BY TASK TYPE"////10X,"NODE",10X,"EXPECTED NUMBER ",	EXPECT 104
2"OF TASK TYPES 1 THROUGH ",I3," FOUND AT NODE")	COXMOD 132
DO 166 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 106

WRITE(6,164) I, (EXPVAL(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	EXPECT 107
164 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	EXPECT 108
166 CONTINUE	EXPECT 109
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,170) I, ITPES	COXMOD 133
170 FORMAT(////10X,"NODE UTILIZATION BY EACH TASK TYPE"////10X,	EXPECT 111
1"NODE",10X,"UTILIZATION OF NODE BY TASK TYPE 1 THROUGH ",I3)	EXPECT 112
DO 180 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 113
IF (NODETYP(I) .EQ. 3) GO TO 190	EXPECT 114
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,175) I, (UTIL(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 134
175 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	EXPECT 116
180 CONTINUE	EXPECT 117
DO 190 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 118
DO 185 J = 2, ITPES	EXPECT 119
UTIL(I,1) = UTIL(I,1) + UTIL(I,J)	EXPECT 120
185 CONTINUE	EXPECT 121
190 CONTINUE	EXPECT 122
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,195)	COXMOD 135
195 FORMAT(////10X,"TOTAL NODE UTILIZATION"////10X,	EXPECT 124
1"NODE",10X,"UTILIZATION")	EXPECT 125
DO 200 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 126
IF (NODETYP(I) .EQ. 3) GO TO 200	EXPECT 127
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,198) I, UTIL(I,1)	COXMOD 136
198 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,F10.5)	EXPECT 129
200 CONTINUE	EXPECT 130
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,210) I, ITPES	COXMOD 137
210 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MEAN TIME EACH TASK TYPE SPENDS ",	EXPECT 132
1"AT THE VARIOUS NODES FOR EACH INTERACTION"////10X,"NODE",10X,	EXPECT 133
2"MEAN TIME FOR TASK TYPE 1 THROUGH ",I3)	EXPECT 134
DO 230 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 135
IF (IDEP(I) .EQ. 1) GO TO 205	EXPECT 136
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,204)	COXMOD 138
204 FORMAT(/10X,"THE MODEL DOES NOT CALCULATE THIS TIME FOR ",/10X,	EXPECT 138
1"NODES WITH STATE DEPENDENT SERVICE RATES.")	EXPECT 139
GO TO 230	EXPECT 140
205 CONTINUE	EXPECT 141
DO 220 J = 1, ITPES	EXPECT 142
UTIL(I,J) = 0.	EXPECT 143
IF ((DEPART(I,J) .EQ. 0.) .OR. (E(I,J) .EQ. 0.)) GO TO 220	EXPECT 144
UTIL(I,J) = EXPVAL(I,J) / DEPART(I,J) + E(I,J)	EXPECT 145
220 CONTINUE	EXPECT 146
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,225) I, (UTIL(I,J),J=1,ITYPES)	COXMOD 139
225 FORMAT(/10X,I4,10X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	EXPECT 148
230 CONTINUE	EXPECT 149
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,240)	COXMOD 140
240 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MEAN RESPONSE TIME FOR THE VARIOUS ",	EXPECT 151
1"TASK TYPES")	EXPECT 152
DO 280 I = 1, NODES	EXPECT 153
IF (NODETYP(I) .NE. 3) GO TO 280	EXPECT 154
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,250) I	COXMOD 141
250 FORMAT(////10X,"THE MEAN RESPONSE TIME FOR TASK ",	EXPECT 156
1"REPRESENTED AT NODE ", I3//10X,"TASK TYPE",10X,	EXPECT 157
2"RESPONSE TIME")	EXPECT 158
DO 270 J = 1, ITPES	EXPECT 159

TIME = 0.	EXPECT 160
IF (DEPART(I,J) .EQ. 0.) GO TO 255	EXPECT 161
TIME = (IUSERS(J) - EXPVAL(I,J)) / DEPART(I,J)	EXPECT 162
255 CONTINUE	EXPECT 163
IF (PRINTON) WRITE(6,260) J, TIME	COXMOD 142
260 FORMAT(/13X,I3,14X,F10.5)	EXPECT 165
270 CONTINUE	EXPECT 166
280 CONTINUE	EXPECT 167
RETURN	EXPECT 168
C	EXPECT 169
C THAT'S ALL FOLKS!!	EXPECT 170
C	EXPECT 171
END	EXPECT 172
SUBROUTINE CHEN75(PROB,NDISKS,DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,NAVGJOB,	COXMOD 143
1EXPVAL,SERVICE,DELTA,PEXPVAL,IUSERS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,	COXMOD 144
2ITYPES,NODES,NITER,E,X,WAREA)	COXMOD 145
	COXMOD 146
DIMENSION PROB(MAXNODE,MAXNODE),DISKPRB(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 147
1DIO(MAXTYPE),EXPVAL(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),SERVICE(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 148
2E(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),X(MAXNODE),TCPU(MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 149
2WAREA(MAXNODE)	COXMOD 150
REAL DELTA,PEXPVAL	COXMOD 151
INTEGER NDISKS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,IUSERS	COXMOD 152
C	COXMOD 153
C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE DELTA BETWEEN THE LAST	COXMOD 154
C ITERATIONS ANSWER FOR THE NUMBER OF JOBS IN THE "THINK STATE"	COXMOD 155
C AND THE CURRENT ITERATIONS ANSWER CONTAINED IN	COXMOD 156
C EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1). ALSO, USING THE SUBROUTINE COMPUTE IT	COXMOD 157
C RECOMPUTES THE PROBABILITY TRANSITION MATRIX, PROB, USING THE	COXMOD 158
C FORMULAE CONTAINED IN CHEN'S ARTICLE, "QUEUEING NETWORK MODEL	COXMOD 159
C OF INTERACTIVE COMPUTING SYSTEMS", IN THE	COXMOD 160
C PROCEEDINGS OF THE IEEE, VOL. 63, NO. 6, JUNE 75.	COXMOD 161
C	COXMOD 162
C	COXMOD 163
WRITE(6,67) NITER	COXMOD 164
67 FORMAT(1H1,////10X,"TRANSITION PROBABILITIES DESCRIBING ",	COXMOD 165
1"MOVEMENT OF TASKS AMONG THE MODEL'S NODES FOR ITERATION ",I5)	COXMOD 166
DO 110 K = 1, ITYPES	COXMOD 167
WRITE(6,68) K, NODES	COXMOD 168
68 FORMAT(////10X,"TRANSITION PROBABILITIES FOR TASK TYPE ",	COXMOD 169
1I3//10X,"DEPARTURE",7X,"PROBABILITY OF TASK MOVEMENT FROM"/12X,	COXMOD 170
2"NODE",9X,"DEPARTURE NODE TO NODES 1 THROUGH ",I3)	COXMOD 171
CALL COMPUTE(K,PROB,NDISKS,DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,	COXMOD 172
1EXPVAL,SERVICE,IUSERS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,NODES,NAVGJOB)	COXMOD 173
IF (NITER .NE. 0) GO TO 70	COXMOD 174
PROB(1,1) = PROB(1,1) + PROB(NDISKS+2,1)	COXMOD 175
PROB(NDISKS+2,1) = 0.0	COXMOD 176
70 CONTINUE	COXMOD 177
DO 75 I = 1, NODES	COXMOD 178
WRITE(6,74) I, (PROB(J,I),J=1,NODES)	COXMOD 179
74 FORMAT(/12X,I4,10X,10F10.5,10(/24X,10F10.5))	COXMOD 180
75 CONTINUE	COXMOD 181
MUPROB = MAXNODE + MAXNODE	COXMOD 182

CALL WRITMS(3,PROB(1,1),NUMPROB,1)	COXMOD 183
DO 80 I = 1, NODES	COXMOD 184
PROB(1,I) = PROB(1,I)-1.	COXMOD 185
PROB(1,I) = 0.	COXMOD 186
K(I) = 0.	COXMOD 187
90 CONTINUE	COXMOD 188
PROB(1,1) = 1.	COXMOD 189
X(1) = 1.	COXMOD 190
C	COXMOD 191
C THE RELATIVE TRANSITION RATE BETWEEN NODES IS CALCULATED	COXMOD 192
C SOLVING THE SET OF LINEAR EQUATIONS SPECIFIED BY PROB AND X.	COXMOD 193
C THE SUBROUTINE LEQ1F SOLVES THIS SET OF LINEAR EQUATIONS.	COXMOD 194
C LEQ1F IS A SUBROUTINE FROM THE INSL PACKAGE SUPPORTED AT	COXMOD 195
C WRIGHT-PATTERSON AFB, OHIO.	COXMOD 196
C	COXMOD 197
CALL LEQ1F(PROB,1,NODES,MAXNODE,X,0,WAREA,IER)	COXMOD 198
CALL READMS(3,PROB(1,1),NUMPROB,1)	COXMOD 199
DO 100 I = 1, NODES	COXMOD 200
GAMMA = 0.	COXMOD 201
DO 90 J = 1, NODES	COXMOD 202
GAMMA = GAMMA + (PROB(I,J) * X(J))	COXMOD 203
90 CONTINUE	COXMOD 204
IF (ABS(GAMMA - X(I)) .LE. .1) GO TO 100	COXMOD 205
WRITE(6,95) I, (X(L),L=1,NODES)	COXMOD 206
95 FORMAT(10X,"THE RELATIVE SERVICE RATE BETWEEN NODES CALCULATED ",	COXMOD 207
1"FROM THE COEFFICIENT ARRAY PROB IS IN ERROR FOR NODE ",	COXMOD 208
213//5X,"THE RELATIVE SERVICE RATES ARE ",/10X,	COXMOD 209
310(/10(F10.5,2X)))	COXMOD 210
GO TO 115	COXMOD 211
100 CONTINUE	COXMOD 212
DO 105 I= 1, NODES	COXMOD 213
E(I,K) = X(I)	COXMOD 214
105 CONTINUE	COXMOD 215
110 CONTINUE	COXMOD 216
115 CONTINUE	COXMOD 217
RETURN	COXMOD 218
END	COXMOD 219
SUBROUTINE COMPUTE(JCLASS,PROB,NDISKS,DISKPRB,TCPU,DIO,	COXMOD 220
1EXPVAL,SERVICE,IUSERS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,NODES,NAVGJOB)	COXMOD 221
DIMENSION PROB(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),DISKPRB(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 222
1DIO(MAXTYPE),EXPVAL(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),	COXMOD 223
2SERVICE(MAXNODE,MAXTYPE),TCPU(MAXTYPE)	COXMOD 224
INTEGER JCLASS,NDISKS,IUSERS,MAXNODE,MAXTYPE,ITYPES	COXMOD 225
C	COXMOD 226
C THIS SUBROUTINE COMPUTES THE PROBABILITY TRANSITION MATRIX	COXMOD 227
C FOR THE MODEL BASED ON THE INPUTS OF CHEN'S MODEL (NDISKS, DISKPRB,	COXMOD 228
C TCPU, AND DIO) AND HIS FORMULAE.	COXMOD 229
C	COXMOD 230
C INITIALIZE PROBABILITY TRANSITION MATRIX	COXMOD 231
DO 10 I = 1, NODES	COXMOD 232
DO 10 J = 1, NODES	COXMOD 233
IF (J.EQ. 1) GO TO 5	COXMOD 234
PROB(J,I) = 0.0	COXMOD 235

	GO TO 10	COXMOD 236
5	PROB(J,I) = 1.0	COXMOD 237
10	CONTINUE	COXMOD 238
	PROB(NDISKS+3,1) = SERVICE(1,JCLASS) / TCPU(JCLASS)	COXMOD 239
	DO 20 I = 1, NDISKS	COXMOD 240
	PROB(I+1,1) = DIO(JCLASS) * PROB(NDISKS+3,1) + DISKPRB(I,JCLASS)	COXMOD 241
20	CONTINUE	COXMOD 242
	IF ((EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1) .GE. IUSERS - NAVGJOB) .AND.	COXMOD 243
	1(IUSERS .GE. NAVGJOB))	COXMOD 244
	2PROB(NDISKS+2,NDISKS+3) = (IUSERS - NAVGJOB) / EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1)	COXMOD 245
		COXMOD 246
	IF (IUSERS .LE. NAVGJOB) PROB(NDISKS+2,NDISKS+3) = 0.0	COXMOD 247
		COXMOD 248
	IF (EXPVAL(NDISKS+3,1) .LE. (IUSERS - NAVGJOB))	COXMOD 249
1	PROB(NDISKS+2,NDISKS+3) = 1.0	COXMOD 250
		COXMOD 251
	PROB(1,NDISKS+3) = 1.0 - PROB(NDISKS+2,NDISKS+3)	COXMOD 252
		COXMOD 253
	CHOICE1 = 0.0	COXMOD 254
	CHOICE2 = 0.0	COXMOD 255
	ACTIVE = EXPVAL(1,1) + EXPVAL(NDISKS+2,1)	COXMOD 256
	DO 40 I = 1, NDISKS	COXMOD 257
	ACTIVE = ACTIVE + EXPVAL(I+1,1)	COXMOD 258
	CHOICE1 = CHOICE1 + PROB(I+1,1)	COXMOD 259
40	CONTINUE	COXMOD 260
	CHOICE1 = CHOICE1 + PROB(NDISKS+3,1)	COXMOD 261
	CHOICE1 = 1.0 - CHOICE1	COXMOD 262
	IF ((ACTIVE .LT. NAVGJOB) .OR. (IUSERS .LE. NAVGJOB)) GO TO 50	COXMOD 263
	CHOICE2 = PROB(NDISKS+3,1) * (ACTIVE - NAVGJOB) /	COXMOD 264
	1 (IUSERS - NAVGJOB)	COXMOD 265
	PROB(NDISKS+2,1) = AMIN1(CHOICE1,CHOICE2)	COXMOD 266
	GO TO 60	COXMOD 267
50	PROB(NDISKS+2,1) = 0.0	COXMOD 268
60	PROB(1,1) = 1.0 - PROB(NDISKS+2,1) - (1.0 - CHOICE1)	COXMOD 269
	RETURN	COXMOD 270
	END	COXMOD 271
	#EOR	
	#EOF	
	}	

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19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) Closed Queueing Network Models Computer Performance Evaluation Time-sharing Computer Systems Approximate Solutions to Queueing Networks		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) An improved model of the DECSYSTEM-10 job-swapping behavior was developed. This model combines a previously developed closed queueing network model with a job-swapping model developed by Chen (Ref 5). Chen's swapping model provides an approximate solution to a network queueing model with a state-dependent probability transition matrix. This combined model is then tested on a hypothetical, though realistic workload containing both interactive and batch jobs. The two classes of jobs are treated first as separate classes, as one class having		

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just the interactive job characteristics. The results of these experiments and a comparison between Chen's swapping model and the classical are presented.

The results of the experiments indicate that it is important to model multiple classes for systems which have a significant amount of batch activity. Also, Chen's swapping model provides a more realistic model of job-swapping behavior for the DECsystem-10. Therefore, combining the multi-class model with Chen's swapping model improves the modeling accuracy for the DECsystem-10. Recommendations for extensions to this multi-class Chen model are also discussed.

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